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THOUGH this first part of the Philosophical Transactions for the present year is considerably smaller than the usual dimensions, we are not to estimate the value of such works by their size. In the instance before us, we shall find our attention excited at some length; and we have been called to the perusal of at least one paper that has afforded us very high gratification. We refer to Mr. Davy's Bakerian lecture

'*On some Chemical Agencies of Electricity.*'

Soon after the Voltaic pile was introduced into this country, it was observed that an acid and an alkali were generated at the ends of the wires connected with its extremities, the acid at the positive, and the alkali at the negative wire. Different opinions were entertained respecting the nature of the acid and the cause of its production; and in some late experiments, performed with a considerable degree of accuracy, it was stated that muriatic acid and soda were the substances produced, and that they were both actually generated by the Galvanic influence. Mr. Davy, however, suspected that their introduction was owing to the decomposition of some part of the apparatus employed; and under this impression he repeated the experiments, having put in practice every precaution for insuring an accurate result. For the various means that were adopted, we must refer to the paper: but the consequence was that the substances were procured; though under such circumstances, and in such proportions, that Mr. Davy conceived himself warranted in concluding that they were derived from the decomposition either of some part of the apparatus, or of some substances contained in the water.

Considering the effect that was produced on glass, he conjectured that bodies, which are generally regarded as insoluble in water, might be transmitted through this fluid by means of

the Galvanic action; and this was found to be the case with the sulphate of lime, the sulphate of strontites, and other similar substances, which were decomposed,—the earth becoming attached to the negative, and the acid to the positive wire. These results led the author to examine the power, which the Galvanic circle possesses, of transferring the constituent parts of bodies across the fluid that is interposed between the two wires; and he instituted a new set of experiments, in which two tubes were filled with different kinds of fluids, and connected by threads of amianthus. In this case, the earths and alkalies were transferred to the negative, and the acids to the positive side of the apparatus; and by placing test papers between, it appears that the acid and alkaline properties were first manifested at the positive and negative wires respectively. The arrangement was then altered by the interposition of a middle vessel, which contained a third species of fluid; and it was found that, when the different substances were transferred through it, they were not affected by it, although it was of a kind to which they possessed the strongest chemical affinity: acid, for instance, passed through an alkaline solution, and alkali through an acid liquor.

From these facts, Mr. Davy deduces the following proposition:

'That hydrogen, the alkaline substances, the metals, and certain metallic oxides, are attracted by negatively electrified metallic surfaces, and repelled by positively electrified metallic surfaces; and contrariwise, that oxygen and acid substances are attracted by positively electrified metallic surfaces, and repelled by negatively electrified metallic surfaces; and these attractive and repulsive forces are sufficiently energetic to destroy or suspend the usual operation of elective affinity.'

Respecting the action of Galvanic power on water, it is remarked;

'The oxygen of a portion of water is attracted by the positive surface, at the same time that the other constituent part, the hydrogen, is repelled by it; and the opposite process takes place at the negative surface; and in the middle or neutral point of the circuit, whether there be a series of decompositions and recompositions, or whether the particles from the extreme points only are active, there must be a new combination of the repelled matter: and the case is analogous to that of two portions of muriate of soda separated by distilled water; muriatic acid is repelled from the negative side, and soda from the positive side, and muriate of soda is composed in the middle vessel.'

The same kind of decomposition and transfer was effected by a peculiar method of applying common electricity, so as to shew that it acts on the same principle with the Voltaic pile.

It has been manifested by Bennet and Volta, that many bodies brought into contact, and afterward separated, exhibit opposite states of electricity; and it appears that similar alterations take place with respect to the substances which enter into the composition of the Galvanic pile. When an acid and a metal are in contact, the acid becomes negative and the metal positive; when an alkaline earth and a metal, the earth is positive and the metal then becomes negative. From these facts we might naturally expect that oxygen would be negative, and hydrogen, positive with respect to water; and that the alkalies and acids would possess opposite conditions with regard to each other. By these considerations, Mr. Davy is led to some new ideas relative to the connection which subsists between the electrical energies of bodies and their chemical affinities. We may suppose that bodies which unite chemically are in opposite states of electricity, and that their affinity for each other will be destroyed or altered by any alteration in their electricity, as was observed to be the case in some of the above mentioned experiments. Hence we may deduce a general theory of chemical affinity, depending on the attraction which different particles of matter possess for each other, when they are in opposite states of electricity.

'Supposing two bodies, the particles of which are in different electrical states, and those states sufficiently exalted to give them an attractive force superior to the power of aggregation, a combination would take place which would be more or less intense according as the energies were more or less perfectly balanced; and the change of properties would be correspondently proportional.'

All the phænomena of elective attraction may be easily explained on this hypothesis; and it is obvious that the result of the affinities must be affected by the mass, in conformity with the facts lately brought into view by Berthollet. This idea of chemical affinity is extremely ingenious; and although, as Mr. Davy himself remarks, it would be improper to place unbounded confidence in it, yet it seems naturally to arise from the facts, and to coincide with the laws of affinity as developed by modern chemists.

With regard to the action of the pile, Mr. Davy thinks that the electricity of its different components have their energies disturbed by their peculiar arrangement with respect to each other; and that the chemical changes, which occur, tend to restore the equilibrium.

'In the Voltaic pile of zinc, copper, and solution of muriate of soda, in what has been called its condition of electrical tension, the communicating plates of copper and zinc are in opposite electrical states. And with regard to electricities of such very low intensity,

water is an insulating body: every copper-plate consequently produces by induction an increase of positive electricity upon the opposite zinc plate; and every zinc plate an increase of negative electricity on the opposite copper plate: and the intensity increases with the number, and the quantity with the extent of the series.

'When a communication is made between the two extreme points, the opposite electricities tend to annihilate each other; and if the fluid medium could be a substance incapable of decomposition, the equilibrium, there is every reason to believe, would be restored, and the motion of the electricity cease. But solution of muriate of soda being composed of two series of elements possessing opposite electrical energies, the oxygen and the acid are attracted by the zinc, and the hydrogen and the alkali by the copper. The balance of power is momentary only; for solution of zinc is formed, and the hydrogen disengaged. The negative energy of the copper and the positive energy of the zinc are consequently again exerted, enfeebled only by the opposing energy of the soda in contact with the copper, and the process of electromotion continues, as long as the chemical changes are capable of being carried on.'

We cannot take leave of this paper, without again expressing the great satisfaction which we have derived from the perusal of it.

Surgery.

An Account of two Children born with Cataracts in their Eyes, to show that their Sight was obscured in very different Degrees; with Experiments to determine the proportional Knowledge of Objects acquired by them immediately after the Cataracts were removed. *By* Everard Home, *Esq.*, *F.R.S.*—Our scientific readers are no doubt acquainted with the interesting account which was published by the celebrated Cheselden, of a boy who was born blind, but whom he restored to sight by the operation of couching; from which he concluded that vision alone, unassisted by the touch, gives no idea of the figure of objects and their distance from the eye. Mr. Ware related some cases in the Philosophical Transactions for 1801, from which he attempted to draw an opposite conclusion; and the object of Mr. Home is to explain the causes which led to such a difference of opinion. For this purpose, he gives an account of two boys, in one of whom the blindness was nearly total, while in the other the patient possessed the power of distinguishing colours with tolerable accuracy. In the first case, the operation was attended with only a slight improvement in the powers of vision, but in the second it was much more successful. From the impression that was made on the patients by external objects, the author deduces these conclusions:

'Where

'Where the eye, before the cataract is removed, has only been capable of discerning light, without being able to distinguish colours, objects after its removal will seem to touch the eye, and there will be no knowlege of their outline; which confirms the observations made by Mr. Cheselden.

'Where the eye has previously distinguished colours, there must also be an imperfect knowlege of distances, but not of outline, which however will afterwards be very soon acquired, as happened in Mr. Ware's cases.'

We may remark that these conclusions are so obvious as scarcely to need the confirmation of Mr. Home's experience; and as to Mr. Ware's opinion, highly respectable as we must always regard it, we have frequently regretted that he was induced to publish the paper to which Mr. Home refers.

Observations on the Structure of the different Cavities, which constitute the Stomach of the Whale, compared with those of ruminating Animals, with a View to ascertain the Structure of the digestive Organ. By the Same.—The species of whale which Mr. Home examined was the *Delphinus Delphis* of Linné, usually called *the bottle-nose whale*. It has four cavities; which, in their appearance and situation, bear a considerable resemblance to those of the ruminating animals. In the first, the food undergoes a species of solution, and is retained there a longer or shorter space of time, in proportion to the facility with which it performs this process. Mr. Hunter, who had formerly examined the stomach of the whale, thought that the second cavity was that in which the proper digestive process was carried on: but Mr. Home, as we think with more plausibility, refers this operation to the fourth.

Natural History.

On the Formation of the Bark of Trees. In a Letter from T. A. Knight, *Esq., F. R. S. to the President.*—A considerable difference of opinion has prevailed among naturalists on this subject. Malpighi thought that the cortical substance, which is annually generated, derives its origin from the outer bark; while Hales supposed that the bark is obtained from the alburnum. The opinion of Hales appeared to receive a strong confirmation from the observations of Du Hamel, who had perceived bark to be reproduced on the surface of the alburnum: but it was afterward found by Mr. Knight that the old bark is also capable of generating new bark, and he concludes from these circumstances that a fluid is exuded which produces a cellular substance that forms the basis of the future bark. This fluid is the proper sap of the tree, which exists both in the alburnum and in the ready-formed bark contiguous to it. We are happy

to learn that Mr. Knight proposes to pursue this investigation in a future essay.

Bos.

MATHEMATICS, &c.

On the Precession of the Equinoxes, By the Rev. Abram Robertson, *M.A. F.R.S., Savilian Professor of Geometry in the University of Oxford.*—Since the time at which the problem of the Precession of the Equinoxes received its first solution by the great Newton, the memoirs of various societies and separate treatises have presented us with other and different solutions. These have proceeded from D'Alembert, in his *Recherches sur la Precession des Equinoxes, et sur la Nutation*, 1749; from Euler, in the Berlin Acts for the year 1749, published 1751; from M. Jaques Silvabelle, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1755; from Thomas Simpson, in the same Transactions for 1757, and in his Miscellaneous Tracts published also in 1757, from Frisi, in his treatise *de Gravitate Universali Corporum*, Milan, 1768; from Mr. Milner, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1779; from Mr. Vince, in the same Transactions for 1787, and afterward in the second volume of his Astronomy; from Mr. Landen in his Mathematical Memoirs, 1780; and from M. La Place, in his *Mécanique Cèleste*.—This enumeration is considerable; yet we must add to it, if we mistake not, another by Professor Robison, inserted in the *Encyclopedia Britannica.*

Sir Isaac Newton's solution, although its method and principle are very fine and ingenious, is now admitted on all hands to be erroneous; and when a solution of an important problem is defective, a new or a corrected one becomes necessary. D'Alembert, La Place, and Simpson, had the strongest motives for attempting this task, in the ambition of accomplishing what Newton had left incomplete.

Besides the reason alledged, others that are very sufficient may be urged for undertaking new solutions; as for instance, if a preceding one, although perfect, be perplexed and obscure, as that of D'Alembert: or a new solution may even enlarge the bounds of science, by being made to rest on some principle or formula of extensive application. Such solutions, however, as are little better than repetitions, and neither add to the substance of mathematical truth, nor adorn and illuminate its processes by lucid arrangement or method, ought not to be tolerated; since while they much increase the labour, they in no degree augment the profit of study, but at once swell and enfeeble the science.

In a separate treatise, D'Alembert solved the precession of the equinoxes: but it was in the 5th volume of his *Opuscules*, published

published in 1768, that this great mathematician made some strictures on the solution of Thomas Simpson, and pointed out errors, (in our opinion, *real* errors,) which have never been amended, although they require correction, since the result of his calculations agrees with results obtained on certain grounds and by more perspicuous processes. D'Alembert, however, did not indicate *all* the errors of Simpson; for the principal fault consists, as we conceive, in equating the *whole effect of the forces to turn the spheroid round about its centre*, (these are his words, the mathematical expression for which is obtained in his first lemma,) with the force by which the spheroid tends to turn about its centre, from the disturbing force of the sun. The mathematical expression for this last mentioned force is obtained in corollary 2. to lemma 3d, page 11.

Simpson uses so many terms of a vague signification, that it is not very easy, in a few words, to shew that the equality between his two *tendencies* and *forces* ought not to be instituted; yet we are desirous of proving this point, since Mr. Robertson has exactly followed Simpson's plan. The effect of the disturbing forces, which are proportional to their distances from a given plane, is rightly calculated, and agrees (as it might easily be shewn) with the same effect computed after Newton's manner in the 3d volume of the *Principia*, prop. 39. The plane, however, from which the disturbing forces are measured, does not necessarily pass through the earth's axis; indeed, when it does pass, the effect of the disturbing forces is nothing: but in Simpson's first lemma, the forces are supposed to act parallel to the axis Pp, and to be proportional to their distance from a plane passing through the axis. The conditions, therefore, of the two cases do not agree; and consequently the two effects calculated on different conditions ought not to be made equal. Perhaps we may be excused if we enter more fully into the discussion of this subject; which, from its history and importance, is by no means uninteresting to mathematicians. We shall refer, in the following investigation, to Newton's figure, prop. 39. book 3d. which is in the possession, we venture to suppose, of all our mathematical readers.

If a force, which may be represented by a weight $\mathcal{Q}$, act at the distance d from the axis C, and turn the spheroid round the axis, then the force (f) accelerating the point A at the distance (a) from C, $= \frac{a.\mathcal{Q}d}{\Sigma.\, m\delta}$: in which expression, the denominator means the sum of the products of each particle into the square of its distance from the axis of rotation. Si-

milarly, if $\mathcal{Q}'$ be another weight acting at the distance d'', then, on account of $\mathcal{Q}'$, the force (f') accelerating the same point A, $= \frac{a.\mathcal{Q}\,d'}{\Sigma.\,m\,\delta}$; and similarly $f'' = \frac{a.\mathcal{Q}''\,d''}{\Sigma.\,m\,\delta^2}$ &c.—Consequently, if all the forces $\mathcal{Q}$, $\mathcal{Q}'$, $\mathcal{Q}''$, &c. act together, the force accelerating the point, or $f + f' + f''$ + &c. or $F = \frac{a.(\mathcal{Q}\delta + \mathcal{Q}'d' + \mathcal{Q}''d'' + \&c.)}{\Sigma.\,m\,\delta^2} = \frac{a.\,\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d}{\Sigma.\,m\,\delta^2}$.

If we compute the values of the numerator and denominator, from the properties of the figure, we shall have F, the force accelerating a point of the equator in a direction perpendicular to the equator: from the force we can deduce the velocity; and thence, according to the doctrine of the composition of motions, we can assign the position of the new equator.

The plan of demonstration which we have here traced out is nearly followed by Mr. Milner in the Philosophical Transactions of 1779; and that gentleman's solution appears to us by many degrees the most precise and perspicuous of all similar processes.

We now come to the method of finding analytical or symbolical expressions for the numerator and denominator. In the numerator $\Sigma.\mathcal{Q}d$, $\mathcal{Q}$ represents, or is analogous to, the difference of the forces with which a particle of the earth and the centre of the earth are drawn towards the sun. In Newton's figure, (proposition 66. book 1.) $\mathcal{Q}$ is to be expounded by $\frac{3PK}{ST} \cdot f$ (f being the force of the earth towards the sun); the quantity d is analogous to TK; and for finding the value of $\Sigma.\mathcal{Q}d$, two methods, which indeed amount to the same, may be followed. Simpson considers the earth not as formed of a sphere and of a surrounding shell bulging out at the equator, but as a spheroid; and, in his 3d lemma, he very elegantly finds the effect of the disturbing forces to turn the spheroid round its centre: which he makes equal to $\frac{\gamma}{a} \cdot \frac{mn}{5} \cdot (a^2 - b^2)\,S$:—$S$ being the mass of the spheroid; γ the force of a particle situated in the equator; m, n the signs of the sun's declination and polar distance; a, b, the semi axis of the earth. In this expression, it is clear that the effect equals nothing, if $a = b$, or if m or n equals nothing.

In the second method, the earth is considered as formed of a sphere and a shell; the disturbing forces in the sphere are mutually balanced, or produce no effect; and motion is caused in the sphere, by the disturbing forces from the shell. Following Newton's method and construction, Mr. Vince, in his

Astronomy, page 114, and Mr. Milner in the Philosophical Transactions, have found the effect to be nearly as $8\,m\,n\,\varepsilon.\,p\,a^4$; which expression agrees with the former, since $S = \frac{4\,p\,a^3}{3}$, and $2\,\varepsilon$ nearly $= a^2 - b^2$.

By the aid of this analysis, we shall now be able to perceive the difference between our solution and that of Thomas Simpson. Since $F = \frac{a.\,\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d}{\Sigma.\,m\,\delta^2}$, $\frac{F}{a}.\,\Sigma'.\,m\,\delta^2 = \Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d$.

Now, since F answers to his γ, his equality stands thus: $\frac{S\,a\,\gamma}{5} = \Sigma\,(\mathcal{Q}d)$; since $\Sigma.\,(\mathcal{Q}d)$ is the same as $\frac{S}{15}\,m\,n\,(a^2 - b^2)\,\frac{\gamma}{a}.\,\frac{S}{5}$, therefore, ought to $= \frac{\Sigma\,m\,\delta^2}{a^2}$. If we take the case of a sphere, or of a spheroid very nearly equal to a sphere, we shall find $\Sigma.\,m\,\delta^2 = S.\frac{2\,a^2}{5}$. Consequently, the value of $\frac{F}{a}\,\Sigma.\,m\,\delta^2 = \frac{2\,S\,a\,\gamma}{5}$: that is, if the former process be right, $\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d = \frac{2\,S\,a\,\gamma}{5}$; whereas, according to Simpson, $\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d = \frac{S\,a\,\gamma}{5}$.

Simpson is so accurate in most of his investigations, that we do not without diffidence, and only after long consideration, controvert his statements. Thee quality which he supposes between the two *tendencies* to turn the spheroid round is not established by any argumentation, and it seems, for the reasons alledged by us, contrary to evidence. Besides this, we have exhibited a process which, if admitted to be just, in a manner proves Simpson's method to be erroneous; and we shall not dismiss this discussion without attempting to shew why Simpson's result becomes right: in other words, we shall endeavour to point out the compensation of errors which is effected in his process.

Although M. D'Alembert has not, in the clearest manner, made out the justness of criticism concerning the value of the small line *VC*, employed in the 2d lemma of Simpson, yet his proof and reasoning may suffice to convince an attentive reader that the small line, which is made the measure of the force, is described with an uniform velocity; and if the space described with an uniform velocity (that is, twice the space which would be described in an uniformly accelerated motion,) be taken to expound the force acting perpendicularly to the plane of the revolving circle, then the centrifugal force must

must be expounded by twice the sagitta, that is by $\frac{(Rm^2)}{OR}$; and consequently the rates between the forces, instead of being as $2r.OD$ to OR, will be as $r.OD$ to OR.—Hence, instead of $2r\beta$ for γ in the expression $\frac{S}{5}a\gamma$, rp ought to be substituted: but, since $\frac{2Sa\gamma}{5}$ ought to be put for $\frac{Sa\gamma}{5}$, the equation after this double amendment will stand as it is put down, viz.

$$2r\beta.\frac{S}{5}=\frac{2\beta t^2}{T2}\,mn.\,(a^2-b^2).\frac{S}{5}.$$

As far as we are enabled to speak from our own reading and information, Mr. Robertson is the only author who has adopted Simpson's method of investigating the ratio between the *librating* force and the centrifugal force of a point in the equator. Several methods, however, are in fact reducible to the form $F.=\frac{a\,\Sigma.\mathcal{Q}d}{\Sigma.\,m\delta^2}$; or, stript of their peculiar language, mean nothing more than what is signified in that expression. Thus, since $F.\Sigma.m\delta^2=a.\,\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d$, we may, with the writer in the Encylopedia, call $F.\Sigma.m\delta^2$ the *momentum* of *the spheroid*, and $a.\,\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d$ the *momentum* of *the moving or disturbing* forces; and then, shewing that an equality ought to subsist between them, to institute such equality between their analytical expressions, and deduce the value of F. This would be, however, to obscure by vague terms a clear case. Or, with the learned Euler, we may call $\Sigma.\,m\delta^2$ the moment of inertia, and find the accelerating force by dividing the effect of the disturbing forces by the *moment of inertia*. Thus, if we compute $\Sigma.\,m\delta^2$, when the earth, considered as spherical, revolves round an axis passing through its centre, it will be found equal to $\frac{2}{5}Ma^2$, M being the earth's mass: consequently, $F=\frac{a.\,\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}\delta}{\frac{2}{5}.\,Ma^2}$; and Euler represents the numerator by the quantity S. Again, if we discard the terms of inertia, and introduce those of gyration, &c. we shall have Mr. Vince's solution in principle and substance. Thus, since the centre of gyration, by definition, is that point into which the whole mass being collected, the same moving force would generate the angular velocity, suppose r to be the distance of such centre; then, since F and the moving forces are to be the same, $F=\frac{a.\,\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d}{\Sigma.\,m\delta^2}=\frac{a.\,\Sigma.\,\mathcal{Q}d}{Mr^2}$. Consequently, $Mr^2=\frac{2}{5}.\,Ma^2$; and consequently, the angular velocity will remain the same, if instead of placing M in the centre of gyration, we place a mass $=\frac{2}{5}M$ at the extremity of the equatorial diameter: so that, in fact, the demonstrations of Milner,

Milner, Vince, and Euler, (in that part which regards the mode of determining the accelerative force,) and those of Frisi and the writer in the Encyclopedia, may be classed together, as essentially resting on the same principle, and differing from each other almost solely in their modes of expression. Although this be the case, however, yet the merit of a demonstration will depend very much on the mode of expression; and on this account, Mr. Milner's demonstration is intitled to notice and distinction, since it is not perplexed by terms of art, nor encumbered with the properties and formulæ of theories connected perhaps with the subject of discussion, but not necessary to that discussion.

In commenting on the essential part of Simpson's demonstration, we have in fact commented on the solution of Mr. Robertson: almost all the latter part of his investigation being the same with that of Simpson, and taken, nearly step for step, from the *Miscellaneous Tracts*. Indeed, except that there is novelty in the first nine articles, we see nothing new in the whole paper. These articles relate to the doctrine of compound rotatory motion; and from the subjoined passage, we presume that the motive for putting together the memoir before us was the hope of clearly explaining that doctrine:

'Since the detection of the error of Newton, some of the most eminent mathematicians in Europe have attempted solutions of the problem. Their success has been various; but their investigations may be arranged under three general heads. Under the first of these may be placed such as lead to a wrong conclusion, in consequence of a mistake committed in some part of the proceedings. The second head may be allotted to those in which the conclusions may be admitted as just, but rendered so by the counteraction of opposite errors. Such may be ranked under the third head as are conducted without error fatal to the conclusion, and in which the result is as near the truth as the subject seems to admit.

'The authors of those investigations, of each of the three descriptions, are entitled to much praise. Their productions afford the most unquestionable proofs of great talents, great zeal, and great perseverance, exerted in the cultivation of science. The mistakes committed in those of the two first descriptions, and the obscurity and perplexity with which those of the third may be charged, are, in my opinion, to be attributed to the same cause, the uncultivated state of that particular department of the doctrine of motion, which constitutes the appropriate foundation for the solution of the problem. The department to which I allude is that of compound rotatory motion.

'In consequence of this persuasion I have, in the first nine of the following articles, endeavoured to investigate the primary properties of compound rotatory motion from clear and unexceptionable principles. The disturbing solar force on the spheroidal figure of the earth

earth is then calculated, and the angular velocity which it produces is afterwards compared with that of the diurnal revolution, by means of the properties of rotatory motion previously demonstrated. The quantity of annual precession is then calculated in the usual way, and also that of nutation, as far as they are produced by the disturbing force of the sun.'

In the construction of his articles, we imagine that Mr. Robertson wished to demonstrate every thing *more Geometrico*, since otherwise that which is diffused over five pages might have been comprised in two. We are not averse to the consumption of ink and paper, when perspicuity and distinctness are to be the result: but, as Mr. R. was evidently writing to mathematicians of tolerable growth and manhood, who must, for the comprehension of the latter part of his paper, be well acquainted with the ordinary fluxionary processes, to such undoubtedly he would have been more intelligible if he had been more succinct. Why, in treating of angular velocities, were not the fluxionary symbols used, since they are not in a subsequent part avoided? Is it necessary to re-state, in a formal article, that an angle varies as the arc directly and radius inversely? If θ be an angle, z its corresponding arc, and r, c, the radius and cosine, then $\theta \cdot \propto \frac{z}{r} \propto \frac{c^{\cdot}}{\sqrt{(r^2-c^2)}} \propto c^{\cdot}$, if $\sqrt{r^2-c^2}$ the sine be given. Would not this have suited the acquirements and comprehension of mathematicians, as well as the three geometrical articles of Mr. Robertson? for we must repeat that the convenience of those who must necessarily be his readers ought to be consulted by an author. Mr. R. was not writing to the students of Oxford who have scarcely wetted their feet in the waters of the elements: his readers are the members of the learned society in whose Transactions his memoir is inserted.

If mathematicians are to be the readers of this paper, in that case perhaps the nine preliminary articles might have been omitted; because the principles and formulæ appropriate to compound rotatory motion have, many years past, been explained and established by Frisi and La Grange; and in the very problem before us, they have been employed by Frisi, and by Professor Robison, if he be the author of the article *Precession* in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*. If the earth revolving round its axis be urged to revolve round another axis perpendicular to the former *, then, by the composition of

* "*Compositis rotationibus terra omnis neque circa axem figuræ, et diurni motus neque circa diametrum Zz volvetur, sed circa axem tertium, qui jaceat in plano, &c.* Frisi *de Precessione Æquinoctiorum*, p. 190, *De Gravitate Corporum.*

rotation,

rotation, it will revolve round a third axis; and Frisi and Professor Robison have determined its inclination with certain planes. Indeed, of this principle of the composition of rotation, although he has not established and furnished it with formulæ, our illustrious Newton makes mention in the 22d corollary of his 66th proposition, "*Impellatur jam globus oblique*," &c. and Mr. Milner, also, in the Philosophical Transactions, has proved the proposition of the composition of angular velocities. The subject, in fact, is of no great difficulty; and perhaps more importance has been attached to Frisi's theorems than they deserve. Suppose x, y, z to be three rectangular co-ordinates as they are called, and that a body is urged to revolve round them with three rotations, as $\psi\cdot$, $\theta\cdot$, $\varphi\cdot$: then, on the principle that every point in the new axis of rotation is to be at rest, we may determine such axis, which will cut the axes x, y, z in angles λ, μ, ν, so that

$$\cos.\ \lambda = \frac{\psi\cdot}{\surd(\psi\cdot^2 + \theta\cdot^2 + \varphi\cdot^2)}$$

$$\cos.\ \mu = \frac{\theta\cdot}{\surd(\psi\cdot^2 + \theta\cdot^2 + \varphi\cdot^2)}$$

Mathematicians are accustomed to call this the instantaneous axis of rotation. In order to find the angle described round this axis, we must investigate the element of the space ($s\cdot$) described by a point to which the co-ordinates x, y, z, belong. Now $s\cdot = \surd(x\cdot^2 + y\cdot^2 + z\cdot^2)$; and by substitution we shall have, after reduction, $s\cdot = \surd(x\cdot^2 + y\cdot^2 + z^2)\surd(\psi\cdot^2 + \theta\cdot^2 + \varphi\cdot^2)$: but, since $\surd(x\cdot^2 + y\cdot^2 + z\cdot^2)$ is the distance (r) of the point from the origin of the co-ordinates, $\surd(\psi\cdot^2 + \theta\cdot^2.\varphi\cdot^2) = \frac{s\cdot}{r}$; consequently, $\surd(\psi\cdot^2 + \theta\cdot^2 + \varphi\cdot^2)$ is the compounded angle of rotation.

In the problem of the precession, when only two rotatory impulses are impressed, one, as φ, may be put $= O$; in that case, the angle $= \surd\overline{\psi\cdot^2 + \theta\cdot^2}$ and the ratio between $\psi\cdot$ and $\theta\cdot$, since $x\cdot = z\theta\cdot$ and $y\cdot = -z\psi\cdot$, is the same as the ratio between $y\cdot$ and $x\cdot$.

Concerning the articles after the 9th, very little remains to be said: but we think that we are justified in stating that they are borrowed from Thomas Simpson. Thus art. 11. is the same as problem 1. of *Miscellaneous Tracts* p. 11, differing only in $\frac{M}{SC^2}$ being put F the sun's absolute force on a particle at C.—Articles 13, 14, are the same as the 3d lemma of Simpson, page 7. Article 15th is the same as corollary 1. of the

the 3d lemma. Article 16. is the same as corollary 2. of the 3d lemma; and article 18. is the same as lemma 1. page 2. In article 19. the author, between the two forces to turn the spheroid, makes the same comparison which Simpson draws towards the conclusion of his second problem, p. 14. and consequently the criticism, which we have already made on the justness of that comparison is here to be applied. Indeed, we are rather strengthened in our opinion by the explanation of the present author: who says,

'As the librating force $\frac{d}{a} \times \frac{mn}{5} \times \overline{a^2 - e^2} \times Z$, ascertained in article 16, and the force $\frac{av}{5} Z$, obtained in the last article, are calculated on the same hypothesis, *viz.* that the force of a particle is as its distance from the plane DCF in Fig. 9, or the plane DMEL in Fig. 10, if they produce equal angular velocities, the spheroids in the two figures being equal in every respect, and all other circumstances being the same, the forces themselves must be equal. Now at either of the equinoxes the other circumstances are exactly the same in the two figures. At the vernal equinox, for instance, the straight line SACB in Fig. 9. must be in the plane of the equator, and therefore the plane DCF, perpendicular to AB, at this time must pass through the poles P, L. At the equinox, therefore, the straight line SACB, and the plane DCF in Fig. 9. are justly represented by ACB, and DMEL in Fig. 10. Hence the librating force $\frac{d}{a} \times \frac{mn}{5} \times \overline{a^2 - e^2} \times Z$ at the commencement of its action, at the equinox, applies to Fig. 10, and at its commencement it is equally efficacious to cause revolution about DE or ML. We are therefore enabled to compare the effect of the librating force, or the revolution it is capable of producing, at the equinox, about ML, with the diurnal revolution of the earth about DE, in the following manner.

'It being admitted that each of the two forces, stated in the beginning of the article, produces the same angular velocity, then $\frac{d}{a} \times \frac{mn}{5} \times \overline{a^2 - e^2} \times Z = \frac{av}{5} Z$, and therefore $d \times mn \times \frac{a^2 - e^2}{a^2} = v$. But if a constant force act for a given time t, and cause the body to move on which it acts, the velocity generated from the commencement of the motion is as the force. Consequently, as v denotes the force acting on a particle at A, during the given time t, and as the forces acting on the other particles of the spheroid are proportional to their distances from the plane DMEL; the angular velocity of A, acquired in the given time t, is also accurately expressed by v. If therefore the force $\frac{av}{5} Z$ cease to act at the end of the given time t, the point A, as the spheroid, is in free space, will afterwards revolve with the uniform angular velocity v; but by the doctrine of constant forces, the angle described by A, during the action

action of $\frac{av}{5}$ Z is equal to $\frac{v}{2} = \frac{d}{2} \times mn \times \frac{a^2 - e^2}{a^2}$.'

Now, according to this explanation, it is only at the equinoxes that *the other circumstances* are the same, (and in this point the effect of the disturbing forces is nothing): in other positions, *the other circumstances* are not the same; and consequently there is no reason why the forces should be equal.

Of the argumentation of the author in the latter part of the extracted passage, we have a very indistinct conception: it may be exact, but we think that no mathematician will say that it is clear.

Articles 22, 24, 25, &c. are the same with problem 4th and its corollaries by Simpson, p. 15, &c.

When we arrived at the end of the memoir, we could not but admire the wonderful forbearance of the author; who, after having swelled himself into size and state with the spoils of Thomas Simpson, deems it unnecessary to lengthen his paper, 'by such additional *remarks as may be met with in every respectable publication on Physical Astronomy.*'

On the subject of this essay, we have a right to complain, as critics and as readers. Our time has been wasted. When different symbols and diagrams are used, we cannot determine, till after examination, whether or not the demonstrations employed are similar to those with which we are acquainted. Mr. Robertson ought plainly to have informed us that the greatest part of his paper was taken from Simpson; and then we should not have sought novelty, at the expence of much time and attention, where no novelty was to be found:—or, if he borrowed without acknowlegement, still he should have preserved Simpson's symbols, which are equally convenient with his own. We are not so unreasonable as to expect that every thing in a memoir and discussion should be novel and original: on the contrary, all authors must borrow something from their predecessors: but Mr. Robertson borrows *a great deal:* indeed, almost all his paper. In a former Review, respecting his demonstration of the Binomial theorem, we noticed the circumstance of the coincidence, that the main principle of that demonstration was the same with that which Euler advanced and used fifty years ago. In the present case, we find no coincidence. We write with no hostile mind, and we wish to express ourselves without acrimony: but what we have said has been dictated by a sense of duty, of which we should have been shamefully neglectful had we been silent on this occasion. Our criticism is neither loose nor general: but, avoiding random conjectures and indistinct allusions, it refers to proposition, page, and article. Of the grounds and reasons of it, we

have

have carefully put the public in possession; and if it be unjust, we have furnished the very means of detecting its injustice.

An Investigation of the general Term of an important Series in the Inverse Method of finite Differences. By the Rev. John Brinkley, *D.D. F.R.S. and Andrews Professor in the University of Dublin.*—The author of this memoir, as a writer in the Irish Transactions, is one of our old acquaintances: but with difficulty could we now recognize him from his outward appearance, so wonderfully spruce and polished have his mathematical habiliments become, under the care and direction of Mr. Bulmer; and we hope that henceforwards he will never have his algebraical dress made up by his former workmen, but give an order to a London tradesman.—Seriously, however, the paper before us is an important and an abstruse one; so abstruse that, unless we transcribed more than half of it, we should despair of rendering its nature and the processes employed in it intelligible to our mathematical readers. It relates, as its title specifies, to a theorem in inverse differences. If $S^n u$ represent the first term of a series of quantities, of which the first term of the nth order is u, then $S^n u$ expanded is represented by a series. It is the object of this discussion to determine the general term in the progression for any value of u, and to give its law; and this is a discussion not uninteresting to the analyst, since the law of the progression has not hitherto been made out, except by La Place in the case of $n=1$.

Before determining the general term, Dr. B. demonstrates the two theorems, $\Delta^n u = \left(e^{\frac{u^{\cdot}}{x^{\cdot}} h} - 1 \right)^n$ and $S^n u = \left(e^{\frac{u^{\cdot}}{x^{\cdot}} h} - 1 \right)^{-n}$, and these are demonstrated with as much simplicity as the nature of the subject admits.

Dr. B. is obliged (that is, he finds it very convenient) to adopt a new notation: instead of $\frac{x_n}{1.2.3-n}$ he writes $\underline{x^n}$; and instead of $\frac{\Delta^n o^m}{1.2.3-n. \ 1.2.-m.}$ he uses $\underline{\Delta.^n o.^m}$—This is somewhat similar to, and we wish that it had been exactly the same as, M. Arbogast's notation, of which we have spoken in former numbers. Instead of $\underline{a}$ — beneath his symbols, Arbogast puts a small c: thus $\overset{c}{D^3}. \beta^r$ means $\frac{D^3. \beta^r}{1.2.3}$. &c.

As this notation had been formed, and as the — seems not to possess any advantage over the little c, we perceive no reason why

why the present author should not have adopted it. Mathematicians ought to agree to use the same language.—For the demonstration of the law of the series, we must refer our scientific readers to the paper itself; which is eminently intitled to their careful consideration.

R.W.

A Meteorological Journal for the year 1806 closes this part of the Transactions.

See P. 6.

ART. II. *Letters addreſſed to the Daughter of a Nobleman*, on the Formation of Religious and Moral Principle. By Elizabeth Hamilton. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1806.

THE rising generation ought to be much better than that which is passing away, since so many more endeavours have been made to promote their improvement. Books for children and young persons rapidly multiply; and if they could well digest all the mental food that is so liberally provided for them, they would surpass grey-beards in wisdom, before they reached the season of maturity. It appears, however, that, in this case, the capacity of the recipient is not sufficiently guaged; and that many of our modern *educationists*, (*da veniam verbo*) if they do not resemble the Belides, may be compared to the man who tried to put a quart of wine into a pint bottle. Youth is not the season for discussion and examination; and therefore the object should be rather to store than critically to exercise the mind. The pupil can find memory before he can command judgment; and consequently education should be chiefly didactic, and sparingly administered in the shape of essays and dissertations. In attempting the early formation of moral and religious principle, (a most important and desirable object,) it is possible to take a wider range than the necessity of the case requires; and into this mistake we think that Miss Hamilton has fallen. Much as we approve the general matter and tendency of these volumes, we cannot regard them as adapted to the ordinary attainments of youth; for we suspect that few young persons are so well acquainted with the Scriptures, as to profit by the sort of discussion on them which some of these letters contain. With very little alteration, many of them might be adapted to the pulpit, since they are more in the strain of a sermon-making divine than in that of a letter-writing lady. The author, indeed, professes herself to be '*deplorably* ignorant of controversial divinity,' and does not presume to discuss knotty points: but she occasionally wanders a little out of her depth, though for the most part she is a practical and not a doctrinal preacher.

As the professed object of the fair writer is to establish the importance of religious and moral principle, she commences her correspondence with Lady Elizabeth B—, to whom these letters are addressed, by illustrating the difference between knowlege and principle.

'To have good principles (she remarks) is not merely to know our duty, and to be furnished with the best motives for performing it; but to have this knowledge and these motives converted into active habits of the mind, so that whenever we are called to judge or to act, we may instantly and involuntarily judge and act as they prescribe.

'The difference between a good education and a bad one, in my opinion, is, that in the course of the former the young mind is *assisted* in transforming the precepts of religion and virtue into those habits of thinking and acting, which are termed ruling principles; and that in the latter, no such assistance is afforded.'

The principles of truth and virtue having no other solid foundation than the fear of God, Miss H. strongly inculcates a belief in the divine presence, from which the feelings and habits of genuine devotion naturally proceed. With unfeigned piety to God, truth and justice towards man stand intimately connected: hence dissimulation is reprobated as incompatible with moral rectitude; and Lady Elizabeth is taught to believe that sincerity is not at variance with politeness. The world, we fear, will read her a different lecture; and we are sorry to add that the flattering style of these letters scarcely comports with the character of the rigid moralist which the writer assumes. From the account here given of Lady Elizabeth, as having never bent an unwilling eye on the path of duty, we should suppose her not to have been a daughter of Eve, and scarcely to need the admonitions and warnings of her friend. The advice, however, is wholesome; and we hope that its operation will not be destroyed by the compliments with which it is mingled.

Miss H. particularly exhorts her young friend to distinguish between bad and good actions:

'A pure and candid mind will always be more ready to believe, and more pleased to report, good than evil. But there is a spurious candour which annihilates all moral distinctions between good and evil, and against this I would zealously warn you. A bad and a vicious action, is a bad and vicious action, let the person who performed it be what and who they will. No eminence of station, no charm of manners, no personal graces, no engaging qualities, can make that right which is in its nature essentially wrong. If the friend whom we most dearly love sins against the laws of God and man, we must, in our hearts, pronounce the action sinful. But if we judge our own hearts, and have a proper sense of our own weakness, grief, untinctured by the arrogance of pride or the malignity of contempt,

contempt, will accompany the sentence. We can have no pleasure in dwelling upon the faults of the most faulty; but we must not pronounce the faulty faultless.'

The subsequent remark is equally correct and worthy of general attention:

'There is nothing upon which we can so much depend as upon the uniform operation of long cherished principle. Virtuous habits, that are merely produced by situation, will last just so long, and no longer than the situation remains unchanged. But when they are the effects of virtuous principle, they will be persevered in through every situation.

'There is still another inference of much importance, to which I would direct your attention. The knowledge of our duty, or, in other words, just and enlightened notions of our happiness, will not have in our minds the force of principles without some pains on our parts. The habit of referring to them, must be for some time persisted in, before they will have much influence upon our conduct. If we have not when young accustomed ourselves to do what was right, and because we knew it to be right, we will [shall] very soon come to do wrong though we know it to be wrong.'

This Lady's hint against the use of exaggerated expression should not be disregarded in the present age, in which the fault is become too common:

'In order to avoid this error, young people ought very carefully to abstain from giving decisive opinions upon what they do not thoroughly understand; nor ought they ever to give an opinion unsupported by a reason which can fully justify it. The impression made upon the youthful mind by whatever greatly pleases or displeases, is sufficiently vivid to bear being expressed in the simple language of truth, without any danger of its being mistaken. Accustom yourself then, I beseech you, to relate and describe with plainness and simplicity; and depend upon it, that by so doing your descriptions will lose nothing of their force.'

When Miss H. comes to her second volume, she assumes the character of the preacher, discoursing on natural and revealed religion, and giving comments on certain portions of Scripture. She even ventures on a new argument in support of the authenticity of Sacred History, which we must not with-hold from our readers:

'In pronouncing sentence upon our first parents, the Supreme Being is represented as dooming the first transgressor to an additional load of suffering and sorrow; but at the same time, and as if to prevent the consequences of despair, as holding forth to her a peculiar hope.

'We have here a lesson which ought, in my opinion, to be inculcated on every female heart. If properly applied, it would teach the woman who repines at want of power, and who boldly assumes it as her right, to be humbled by the remembrance of her sex's weakness.

It would at the same time prevent any from sinking under a painful sense of inferiority. Let her who, thinking meanly of her sex, relinquishes all hope, all desire of improvement, let her remember, that when the first pair stood before the tribunal of an offended God, though the weakness of the woman was not accepted as an apology for her guilt, yet, that to her was granted the promise of salvation, and that she was expressly told by the voice of Omnipotence, that it was the "seed of the woman which should bruise the serpent's heel."

'Would it ever have entered into the imagination of *uninspired* man, to have represented the Almighty as speaking thus? No. Had this history been compiled by human wisdom, and preserved by human power, we should doubtless have had a very different account of this awful and important sentence, in which justice and mercy are so conspicuously mingled. We should have seen the woman represented as seducing and seduced: the first accounted for by her charms; the latter by her weakness. We should have seen her represented as the cause of ruin; but we should never have heard of her being declared the medium of restoration to the human race.'

Having taken a rapid glance at the contents of the Old Testament, Miss H. proceeds to the New, and endeavours to enforce the sublime morality of the Gospel. Her Commentary on the Lord's Prayer is apposite, and some good observations occur: but we trust that she will pardon us for whispering in her ear that she has not sufficiently studied the subjects of Christian theology, to justify her public discussion of them.

Mo-y.

ART. III. *The Climate of Great Britain;* or Remarks on the Change it has undergone, particularly within the last 50 Years. Accounting for the increasing Humidity and consequent Cloudiness and Coldness of our Springs and Summers; with the Effects such ungenial Seasons have produced upon the Vegetable and Animal Economy. Including various Experiments to ascertain the Causes of such Change. Interspersed with numerous Physiological Facts and Observations, illustrative of the Process in Vegetation, and the Connection subsisting between the Phenomena of the Weather and the Productions of the Soil. By John Williams, Esq. 8vo. pp. 360. 8s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1806.

IT is the birthright of an Englishman to murmur at the uncertainty of the weather, and the complaint is too frequently not unreasonable: but, when we hear persons assert that the climate is becoming more unsettled and less congenial to the vegetable kingdom, we are generally disposed to impute this opinion either to the querulousness of old age, or to the moroseness of individual temper and disposition. This, however, is the conviction of Mr. Williams; and he not only endeavours to establish the fact, but he attempts to display the cause of it, and to point out the remedy.

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The proof of the fact, that the climate of Great Britain has undergone a considerable change *during the last* 50 *years*, rests principally on the testimony of an old monkish historian, who flourished *in the* 12*th century*; and who informs us that, in his time, England produced as good vines as many provinces of France, that grain returned an increase of a hundred fold, and that the high ways were full of natural fruit trees. This, it must be acknowleged, is very different from the present state of things in the most favoured parts of the island; and admitting the accuracy of the narrator, it would go far to establish the point in question: but on this subject we feel extremely sceptical. The general character of the writers of the period in which William of Malmsbury lived, who is the monk in question, is such as to justify the utmost degree of caution in receiving their testimony; and in the present instance, we apprehend that the account is sufficiently extravagant to refute itself. If we credit the assertion respecting the goodness of the wine, we may also believe his position relative to the produce of the corn. The quotations from Malmsbury, and other circumstances which Mr. Williams mentions, prove that vineyards were formerly not unfrequent in England: but we think it is probable that they were given up, when, in consequence of the increased intercourse between this country and France, it was found that the grapes of the latter were much superior, and that our own land might be more advantageously employed in raising corn. This discovery seems to have been made some centuries before the period assigned by Mr. W. for the deterioration of our climate.

In the second place, we are to consider the cause of this supposed change in the English climate. Mr. W's. opinion on this point shall be presented to our readers in his own words:

'*I attribute the humidity, and consequently coldness, of our modern summers, to the increased evaporating surface, caused by the enclosing of the open fields and wastes; the multifarious intersections of them by fences, especially with hawthorn; to the increased luxuriance of our crops, by a general system of improvement in the agriculture of the country; to these I may with propriety add the late increase of pasturage, productive of a serious disproportion between that and tillage; to the numerous plantations, more especially of foreign trees, and such whose exhaling power is prodigiously great; and the immense bodies of nearly stagnated water in the numerous canals that have been cut within the assigned period.*'

It is well known that the different vegetable productions, with which the surface of the earth is covered, perspire or exhale a large quantity of moisture, which rises into the atmosphere, and again descends in the form of rain or dew. The present author takes some pains to shew that the exotic plants perspire more copiously than such as are indigenous; and he

gives an account of some experiments which he instituted for the purpose of proving this position. The experiments, however, appear to us totally inadequate to the object; they are few, and incorrect; and it is worthy of observation that the exhaling power of exotics is principally deduced from experiments performed on the elm and the hawthorn. That the quantity of inclosed land is every year rapidly increasing, and that the crop of useful vegetables produced is much greater than formerly, no one can doubt: but it does not follow that more vegetable matter is generated. A considerable part of the system of modern cultivation consists in converting wet marshy ground into dry pastures, in clearing away underwood, in throwing small inclosures into larger, in embanking, and in confining water courses; and as to the new plantations, which have excited so much alarm in the mind of the author, though we admit their existence, we must at the same time remark that the quantity of timber in the country is considerably diminishing: probably it does not now amount to more than one fourth part of its stock in the time of Malmsbury.

After having thus endeavoured to prove that the climate is deteriorated, and to specify the means by which this change has been effected, Mr. Williams next enters on some meteorological speculations. He first inquires what becomes of the vapor which is raised from the earth, in the regions of the atmosphere; and he conjectures that it is united to the electric fluid, and by its means formed into vesicles, which compose the clouds. If a sufficient quantity of electricity be not present, the water is detained near the surface of the earth, in the form of mist or vapor; and when it is withdrawn from the vesicles, the water falls in the form of rain. As far as we are able to judge of the theory, a still greater quantity of electricity, in conjunction with caloric, entirely dissolves the water; and when either the electricity or the caloric is removed, first the vesicles appear, and, by a farther reduction, drops of rain are formed. Hence it will follow that, if we suppose the same portion of water to be carried off from the surface of the earth, the electricity and caloric remaining as before, there will be a greater tendency to the formation of mists and clouds, and finally a larger quantity of rain;—and this the author imagines to be the case in our country, in consequence of the increase of exhaling vegetable matter. We have again some experiments adduced, to prove that vegetables can deprive the neighbouring air of its electricity; a position which we believe is generally admitted to a certain extent: but we do not think that the experiments are by any means conclusive as to the degree in which this power exists.

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We next meet with a considerable portion of extraneous matter, very remotely connected with the subject of the volume, before we arrive at that part in which the author brings forwards his plan for the amelioration of the climate. This object is principally to be attained by removing all unnecessary exhaling substances, such as useless fences and trees, by reducing the quantity of grass land, by banishing all exotics from our woods, and by substituting evergreens in their stead. As we doubt altogether the facts on which the hypothesis is built, we cannot admit that the proposed remedies would have any beneficial effect on the climate; much less can we enter into the views of Mr. Williams, when he suggests a plan for increasing the quantity of electricity in the atmosphere. We shall, however, lay this very extraordinary proposal before our readers, *verbatim et literatim*, lest it should be supposed that we were endeavouring to turn it into ridicule, if we were to attempt any abstract of it:

'Suppose, therefore, a building erected and furnished with machinery, something similar to a cotton or silk mill, and that the various movements consisted of cylinders or plates of glass, fitted up with rubbers, &c. for exciting electricity; and so arranged as to convey the electric matter into an insulated upright bar, terminating without the roof of the building, in a large lamp or a series of lamps and points for again diffusing the electrical matter in the circumambient air. I find, by calculation, that a force adequate to work a common pair of millstones, would give motion to twelve hundred such electrical cylinders or plates of glass. If, therefore, one cylinder, in two seconds of time, will electrize so many cubic feet of air contained in a room twenty-four feet by eighteen, and thirteen feet high; it might be easy to calculate what quantity of vapour for any given space and height, expanse being also attended to, in any given time: the number and power of such apparatus being previously ascertained.

'Might not one or two buildings, of the nature I have described, furnished with the requisite apparatus in each County, be adequate to effect all we want, so as to render the Seasons more propitious to the health of our growing crops?. If ever an experiment should be tried, the building ought to be erected on a heath, or at least in a situation devoid both of trees and buildings; as these would reabsorb the electric matter: elevated land, but not mountainous, would be the most eligible. Such powerful machines as I have described, might perhaps occasion local accumulations of electric matter, and thus excite frequent thunder storms; if so, a greater number of smaller exciting instruments might be applied in different parts of the Country.'

The author sagaciously adds that there should be a general *Board of Weather* established, to determine when rain and when sunshine were wanted, lest different counties should be counteracting

teracting each other, one manufacturing rain, and the other driving it away: for we ought to mention that, by the converse of the above operation, we may, according to Mr. Williams, remove the electricity from the clouds and precipitate the rain. This project speaks for itself; and under the impression which it must necessarily produce on the minds of all our readers, we shall take our leave of the author and his hypothesis.

Bos.

ART. IV. *Practical Observations on the principal Diseases of the Eyes*: illustrated with Cases. Translated from the Italian of Antonio Scarpa, Professor of Anatomy at Pavia, &c. &c. with Notes by James Briggs, Assistant Surgeon of the Public Dispensary, London. 8vo. pp. 550. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies, 1806.

IT has been observed, and perhaps with justice, that in no department of medicine or surgery have the English practitioners failed to keep pace with their professional brethren on the Continent, except in the treatment of the diseases of the eyes. The volume now before us may tend to confirm this opinion; since, notwithstanding the prejudices which we naturally possess in favor of our countrymen, we are obliged to acknowlege that it appears to us, on the whole, more comprehensive and valuable than any work which we before possessed on the same subject. The author does not indeed profess to give a complete account of all the maladies of the eyes, but informs us that he only proposes to treat of those respecting which he has it in his power to speak from actual experience. His catalogue will, however, be found to embrace very nearly all the important diseases to which the eyes are subjected; it is as follows:

'Of the puriform discharge of the Palpebræ and Fistula Lachrymalis; Hordeolum; Encysted tumours of the eye-lids; Cilia which irritate the eye; Relaxation of the Upper eye lid; Eversion of the eye-lids; Ophthalmia; Nebula of the Cornea; Albugo, and the Leucoma; Ulcer of the Cornea; Pterygium; Encanthis; Hypopion; *Procidentia iridis*; Cataract; Artificial Pupil; Staphyloma; Dropsy of the eye; Amaurosis, and the Hemeralopia; Calculous concretion of the internal part of the eye.'

Without attempting to give our readers an abstract of all the important information contained in this volume, we shall select some of those topics on which the author has broached opinions that, either from their novelty or their intrinsic value, are particularly intitled to our notice.

Prof. Scarpa's idea of the nature and origin of the *fistula lachrymalis* is in a great measure new, and highly deserving of

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attention. He thinks that the disease primarily depends on an affection of the *palpebræ*, and that they secrete a puriform humor, which, being received into the sac, obstructs and distends it; the obstruction being continued, the ducts are rendered impervious to the tears; and the sac itself becomes diseased, and communicates the disease to the contiguous parts. According to this view of the subject, the affection is naturally divided into four stages; first, when the purulent matter is received into the sac, but does not distend it; secondly, when the sac is manifestly enlarged, and the passage for the tears is obstructed; thirdly, when the sac is ulcerated, and forms what is properly the *fistula lachrymalis*; and lastly, when there is a caries of some of the small bones near the termination of the duct. We regard it as probable that the process, which takes place in the formation of *fistula lachrymalis*, is frequently similar to the one here described: but we are not prepared to attribute it, in every instance, to a previous affection of the *palpebræ*. Cases have fallen under our inspection, in which no manifest disease of the *palpebræ* preceded or accompanied the *fistula*; and, on the contrary, the most inveterate diseases of the *palpebræ* occur without producing any derangement in the functions of the sac. We offer our objections, however, with deference to the experience and judgment of the author. It is obvious that the opinion proposed by M. Scarpa must have an important influence over our practice;—if the disease originates in an affection of the *palpebræ*, until this be corrected, it will be in vain to apply our remedies to the lachrymal sac.

The chapter on Ophthalmia bears ample testimony to the practical skill of the Professor. He adopts the usual division of the disease into acute and chronic; the former requiring antiphlogistic and emollient remedies, the latter demanding astringents and corroborants. These varieties must certainly form the basis of our practice; and our great object is to determine, with precision, how far each particular case is to be referred to one or the other of these kinds, and to adapt accordingly the plan of treatment. Here, however, is a task of much difficulty; since, although in extreme cases the symptoms are sufficiently well marked, a large proportion of those which fall under our care are of a more ambiguous nature. In each individual instance, the two states are liable to be converted into each other; and indeed, as Prof. Scarpa remarks, even the most violent inflammatory ophthalmia, in consequence of the means employed for its removal, frequently assumes, towards its termination symptoms of relaxation and debility. Both in his general directions and in his account of particular cases, we think that the author displays a pe-

a peculiar degree of judgment and sagacity in the adaptation of his remedies to the particular periods and states of the disease. In his treatment of acute ophthalmia, however, more dependance is placed on constitutional remedies than the practitioners of this country will be inclined to allow. Not only general bleeding and purgatives are enjoined, but the use of emetics is advised; and if any accustomed evacuation be suppressed, blood is to be drawn from the neighbourhood of the part. With respect to the topical remedies, leeches are to be placed around the eye, emollient fomentations are to be applied externally, and mucilaginous substances are to be introduced into it. This method is to be continued until the pain and uneasiness of the eye shall cease; when it is probable that a degree of relaxation in the organ will require a directly opposite system, consisting in the application of astringents.

After the account of the general treatment of ophthalmia, we have some observations on a particular species of it, which, from its rapid progress and dangerous termination, requires the most active practice; viz. the puriform ophthalmia of new-born children. The author remarks that this affection is commonly accompanied by a vomiting and purging of yellow matter; a circumstance which directs the attention to the state of the bowels, and points out the necessity of evacuating their contents. Bleeding and blisters are then to be adopted; and, after the acute stage is over, a change which is indicated by the matter assuming a purulent appearance, astringents are to be employed. If the cornea be left opake, the thebaic tincture may be dropt into the eye; or an ointment used, the principal ingredients of which are tutty and the white precipitate of mercury.

On the subject of Cataract, M. Scarpa states the relative advantages of couching and extraction, and decides in favor of the former. He recommends the use of a needle different from the one generally employed in this country, in being curved at the point. It appears to possess a great advantage over the straight needle, by enabling the operator more easily to reach the capsule of the crystalline, which, as the process is generally conducted, is left behind opposite to the pupil; and when it becomes opake, the vision remains completely obstructed. The frequent disappointments arising from this circumstance appear to have been the reason, which caused the complicated operation of extraction to be preferred to the more simple process of couching.

Prof. Scarpa's skill is well displayed in his observations on Amaurosis. He points out the symptoms by which we may judge whether the disease is of a kind that promises to be susceptible

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of relief. The passage is too long to admit of being quoted in this place, but we notice it as particularly deserving the attention of the young practitioner. When the complaint is recent, and exists only in an imperfect degree, it often appears to be connected with a morbid state of the stomach; it is then relieved by evacuating this organ, and afterward by administering cinchona and valerian. The author also recommends that the vapor of the caustic volatile alkali should be applied to the eye;—blisters, sternutatories, and electricity, have occasionally proved advantageous.

On the whole, we may fairly rank this volume among the most valuable that have, for some time, appeared in the medical department. It is evidently the production of a man of natural ability, improved by extensive practice: the information is conveyed in a perspicuous style; the hypothetical remarks are introduced with a becoming modesty; and the criticisms on the practice and opinions of others are judicious and candid.—We have not had an opportunity of perusing the original, but the translation seems to be well executed, and a few notes are subjoined which add to the utility of the work.

Bos.

Art. V. *A Treatise on the Varieties and Consequences of Ophthalmia;* with a preliminary Inquiry into its contagious Nature. By Arthur Edmondston, M.D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 8vo. pp. 330. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1806.

In the year 1802, Dr. Edmondston published an account of an ophthalmia which had prevailed to a great extent in the 2d regiment of Argyleshire fencibles*, and which, from some circumstances connected with its origin and progress, he was led to regard as produced by contagion that had been imported from Egypt. The present volume may be considered as an expansion of the former pamphlet; the author here entering more at large into the discussion respecting the contagious nature of the disease, and adding to it a regular treatise on the subject of ophthalmia.

The contagious nature of ophthalmia, an idea to which we before hesitated to give our assent, is now supported by such a train of facts that we can no longer refuse to admit it. However novel it might at that time appear, and however repugnant to the phænomena which the disease usually exhibits in this country, the case is so clearly made out as, in our estimation, to leave little room for farther discussion. For a detail of the facts on which the opinion is grounded, we must re-

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* See M. R. Vol. xl. N. S. p. 88.

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fer to the work, because it would far exceed our limits to lay them fully before the reader, and their effect would be lost by any partial statement. We shall only in general observe that the ophthalmia was not connected with any other diseases, that it did not spread like an epidemic, that it attacked those only who had been exposed to the contagion, and that no grounds appeared for ascribing it to cold, or any of the usual exciting causes. The disease in question bore an exact resemblance to the Egyptian ophthalmia, and the particular circumstances of the case easily accounted for the method of its communication. Admitting, however, that it is contagious, it requires a peculiar concurrence of circumstances for its original production; and the causes which render the Egyptians so extremely liable to the disease are sufficiently obvious. The dazzling light to which their eyes are constantly exposed, the clouds of dust with which the atmosphere is perpetually filled, the use of the turban, and the custom of sleeping in the open air, may be regarded as among the most powerful of the exciting causes.—In order to establish more fully the hypothesis of contagion, Dr. Edmondston endeavours to obviate the objections that have been urged against it; and, particularly, he labours to shew why the operation of contagion had never before been recognized. With respect to Egypt itself, he remarks that the exciting causes are so numerous, and at all times act so powerfully, that the attention has been exclusively directed to them; and with regard to this country, it appears that the contagious nature of the complaint is not developed without the concurrent operation of several causes existing with an unusual degree of violence.

The author's observations on the theory of the disease are contained in a preliminary inquiry, which occupies about one third of the volume; and the remainder consists of a general treatise on ophthalmia, in which the history, causes, and treatment of the affection successively fall under consideration. Dr. E. divides the disease into idiopathic and symptomatic, a distinction which actually exists, and which is of practical importance. The phænomena of the disease are described as they usually appear in this country, and afterward in the more aggravated form which they assume in Egypt: but it is not supposed that these species are essentially different. Other varieties next pass under our review; the psocophthalmia or ophthalmia tarsi of Cullen, the puriform ophthalmia of newborn children, the ophthalmia which depends on a general syphilitic affection, and that violent form of the disease which has been supposed to result from a suppressed gonorrhœa. This latter species engages a considerable share of the author's attention,

tention, and he discusses at some length the different hypotheses which have been formed respecting its origin. He assents to the commonly received opinion, that it arises from the suppression of gonorrhœa in its inflammatory stage; and he ascribes it to a similarity of action which pervades the whole of any continuous membrane, such as that is said to be which lines the whole of the internal cavities of the body. This explanation, we confess, appears to us addressed more to the ear than the understanding; and yet we acknowlege that we cannot offer a more plausible one. Perhaps it would be better to collect a greater number of facts, and to ascertain the phænomena with more precision, before any attempt is made to assign a cause for them.

In the treatment of ophthalmia, the first object is to empty the small arteries of the eye, which, the author conceives, is most effectually done by dividing the vessels themselves; the scarification of the eye was found remarkably useful in the Egyptian ophthalmia. We have no doubt of the propriety of Dr. Edmondston's opinion: but we apprehend that, except in the most urgent cases, it would be impossible to prevail on our patients to submit to the operation. Dr. E. varies somewhat from the common routine of practice, in recommending that the collyria, in the early stages of ophthalmia, should be employed in a tepid state. It is not easy to explain the mode of operation: but we believe that the practice will be found successful.—The remaining observations on the treatment of ophthalmia are correct, but not marked by any peculiar novelty.

This is, altogether, a respectable and useful volume; the style, though diffuse, is intelligible and unaffected; the hypothetical parts are candid; and the practical remarks are in general judicious.

Bos.

ART. VI. *A Tour through Holland,* along the right and left Banks of the Rhine; to the South of Germany, in the Summer and Autumn of 1806. By Sir John Carr, Author of the Stranger in Ireland, &c. 4to. pp. 468. and 21 Engravings. 2l. 2s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1807.

HAPPILY for himself, Sir John Carr appears to be in possession of the genuine receipt for making modern tours; which is an amusing, and, we understand, not an unprofitable employment. When a man is acquainted with this secret, it is impossible for him to complain that his wanderings have proved unproductive: on the contrary, every route is prolific, and matter sufficient to fill the handsome quarto is easily collected. First, a memorandum book must be provided, in which the

the tourist carefully notes down the scenery of the country through which he rambles, every little incident of his journey, and the various anecdotes, whether true or false, which he collects at inns or *tables d'hôte*;—secondly, a sketch book, for taking views, or rather rough outlines of principal places;—thirdly, all local guides must be consulted;—fourthly, when the traveller returns home to work up his materials for the public eye, he not only finishes his drawings, which are intended to furnish plates for the embellishment of his book, but he ingeniously swells its bulk by liberal extracts from history; unites to his rapid surveys of towns and cities, biographical accounts of the most celebrated characters who were born or flourished in them;—and lastly, he sprinkles his narrative with reflections and poetical citations. Such manufactures, if tolerably executed, cannot fail to be entertaining: but the facility of their construction abstracts from their literary merit; and the temptation which they afford of serving up the same food, *toties quoties*, makes it the duty of the critic, who should protest against the unprofitable blotting of paper, to distinguish between matter collected in the study, which has been often previously quoted, and the genuine result of travelled observation. If it be objected that the narrative would be meagre without these addenda, we shall reply that such a tourist, after all his parade, will not add much to our stock of knowlege; and that his work will be more ponderous than informing.

Without reluctance, we concede to Sir John Carr the merit of being a sensible and observant rambler: but he must be thoroughly aware that his pages contain little that is absolutely new; and that many of his accounts and anecdotes are in the predicament of the old lady's stories, which, though very well told, had unfortunately been frequently told before.—Some persons will be inclined, at the outset, to be prejudiced against this tourist for having allowed his curiosity to vanquish his morality, and for condescending to be smuggled into Holland and Germany as an American. Commencing his journey by a departure from truth, his readers may be disposed to expect in his narrative *quicquid Græcia mendax audet in historiâ*. Though, however, we do not approve of prevarication, and of sailing, even on an excursion of pleasure or improvement, under false colours, we shall admit the supposition that Sir John considered the deception as venial; and that, when he passed himself on the Hollanders under a fictitious character, he was not speculating to pass off untruths on his readers. As far as his accounts of places and scenery are concerned, he appears to be correct; and it was his practice, in order to obtain extensive views of the surrounding country, to ascend the

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tops of church-steeples and towers: a hint which merits the notice of all travellers. As an amateur artist, he indulges himself in notices of the painters of the Flemish and Dutch schools, seemingly without considering that the anecdotes which he relates may not be new to his readers, though he acknowleges the sources whence he has borrowed them.

Sailing from Gravesend in a Dutch galliot, an uncomfortable voyage brought Sir John to the Maas; whence he proceeded to Rotterdam, the population of which city is said to be 60,000. In his survey of Holland, he does not omit to remark the general diffusion of useful instruction, and its happy effects:

'The very few instances of cruelty which occurred in Holland during the late revolution, have been very justly attributed to the happy effects of education. Whenever any disposition to severity evinced itself, an appeal to reason and humanity inclined it to forgive: a memorable proof of this statement appeared in the revolutionary movements which occurred at Amsterdam.

'Even an English merchant would be astonished to see the wonderful arithmetical attainment of stripling clerks in any of the Dutch compting-houses, and the quantity of complicated business which they discharge in the course of the day, the order of their books, the rapidity and certainty of their calculation, according to the commercial habits and exchange of different countries, and the variety of languages which they speak; to which may be added, the great regularity and length of their attendance, and the decency and propriety of their deportment.

'With proper modifications, what an example for our own government, with respect to the sister kingdom, does Holland present!'

It seems indeed like infatuation, or a mental blindness inflicted by Providence, that our Senators and Statesmen, who of all others ought to *know* how to appreciate the advantages of *knowlege*, should throw any obstacles in the way of its progress to the lowest members of society. Knowlege is *virtue*, as well as *power*; and the morals of no country can be improved, while the profoundest ignorance envelopes the great mass of its population. Scotland and Holland are examples for Ireland; and we most devoutly wish that Ireland was assisted and encouraged to imitate them. The correctness of Sir John Carr's late eulogies on that country might then be more generally admitted.

The King of Holland is represented as extremely popular among his subjects; and a very severe reflection, (we fear, with too much truth) is thrown on the character of the late Stadtholder.—At Delft, Sir John tells us that he 'met with two or three inhabitants who spoke good English, and expressed in terms of feeling misery, the heavy losses and distresses

which they had sustained by a rupture with England; yet, strange as it may appear, they seemed to think well of their new government, and spoke with great esteem of their king, of whom they said, they well knew, he felt the impolicy of a war with England as much as any Dutchman, and that he would rejoice at the hour, when the great political events which were passing in other parts of the world, would admit of a renewal of amity and free intercourse with that country:—they spoke of the government of the Stadtholder with contempt, and of the republic with detestation.'

Of the remarkable objects in Holland, none seem to have attracted the notice of this traveller more than the *carillons*, or chimes, which he thus describes:

'These carillons are played upon by means of a kind of keys communicating with the bells, as those of the piano forte and organ do with strings and pipes, by a person called the Carilloneur, who is regularly instructed in the science, the labor of the practical part of which is very severe, he being almost always obliged to perform in his shirt with his collar unbuttoned, and generally forced by exertion into a profuse perspiration, some of the keys requiring a two pound weight to depress them: after the performance, the Carilloneur is frequently obliged immediately to go to bed: by pedals communicating with the great bells, he is enabled with his feet to play the base to several sprightly and even difficult airs, which he performs with both his hands upon the upper species of keys, which are projecting sticks, wide enough asunder to be struck with violence and celerity by either of the two hands edgeways, without the danger of hitting the adjoining keys. The player uses a thick leather covering for the little finger of each hand, to prevent the excessive pain which the violence of the stroke, necessary to produce sufficient sound, would occasion: these musicians are very dextrous, and will play pieces in three parts, producing the first and second treble with the two hands on the upper set of keys, and the base as before described. By this invention a whole town is entertained in every quarter of it; that spirit of industry which pervades the kingdom, no doubt originally suggested this sudorific mode of amusing a large population, without making it necessary for them to quit their avocations one moment to enjoy them. They have often sounded to my ear, at a distance, like the sounds of a very sweet hand-organ; but the want of something to stop the vibration of each bell, to prevent the notes of one passage from running into another, is a desideratum which would render this sort of music still more highly delightful. Holland is the only country I have been in, where the sound of bells was gratifying. The dismal tone of our own on solemn occasions, and the horrible indiscriminate clashing of the bells of the Greek church in Russia are, at least to my ear, intolerable nuisances. I afterwards learnt that the carillons at Amsterdam have three octaves, with all the semi-tones complete on the manual, and two octaves in the pedals; each key for the natural sound projects near a foot, and those for the flats and sharps, which are played several inches higher, only half as much.

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The British army was equally surprised and gratified, by hearing upon the carillons of the principal church at Alkmaar, their favourite air of "God save the king" played in a masterly manner, when they entered that town.'

The generality of tourists who have visited Holland have been more astonished by the industry of the inhabitants, than delighted by the prospect of the country: but this writer finds much to amuse him in the latter respect; and he asserts that 'the single ride from Delft to the Hague would alone have repaid the trouble and occasional anxiety which he experienced in getting into and afterwards out of the country.'

The visit to the Hague, and to the *House* (now the *Palace*) *in the Wood*, introduces a fresh notice of the King; who is reported to have displayed uncommon activity and talents in the discharge of the great duties of his station.

Scheveling and Leyden are next explored. To a description of the present state of the latter, is appended an account of the horrible siege which this city indured in 1573, when the execrable Duke of Alva commanded the Spanish forces in Holland; as well as biographical sketches of painters, and of Lawrence Costar, in favour of whom Sir John here decides, as having been the original inventor of the invaluable art of printing. When he arrives at Francfort, he discusses the merits of the respective claimants, and places the matter in a correct point of view; observing that Costar used moulds of wood which were immoveable, and stamped the paper only on one side, while Guttenberg printed on both sides of the leaf with moveable metal types.

On the university of Leyden, the following remarks occur:

'The constitutional regulations of this university are conceived in a noble spirit of liberality. No offensive obligations, no religious tests, no repulsive oaths, are imposed, no insidious attempts at proselytism are exercised. Youths of every religious persuasion mingle together in perfect harmony; like brothers they aggregate to study, and not to quarrel about modes of faith. Whatever may be the rank of the student, or from whatever country he may come, he speedily adopts the decent, gentle, and frugal manners and habits of the inhabitants. The long war and revolution of this country have naturally withdrawn a great number of young men of rank and fortune from this seminary, and prevented others from entering it. The students do not now exceed two hundred. A considerable number of English students, in a period of peace, used to flock to this illustrious academy, which, as well as the beauty, tranquillity, cleanliness, and salubrity of the city in which it stands, and the cheapness and perfect freedom of living, and the charms of the surrounding country, holds out the strongest attractions to the recluse and studious. The examinations for academical honors are more severe than even for those of Trinity College Dublin'

From Leyden, Sir John Carr floated to Haarlem; and after having paid his respects to the great organ there, he proceeded to Amsterdam: the population of which he states at 300,000, and that of all Holland at 2,800,000.

Occupied as this traveller is with sights, he does not forget the Ladies of Holland, of whom he speaks in the highest terms; and he also presents us with an inside view of the houses of the genteel people in Amsterdam:

'The ladies of Holland, if I may judge from those with whom I had the honour and happiness of associating in Amsterdam, are very amiable, thoroughly well bred, well educated, speak English, French and German, and they are very polite and courteous to strangers: they are also remarkable for their attention to decorum and modesty; the unmarried, without prudery, are highly virtuous, and the married present a pattern of conjugal fidelity. They are also very fond of dancing, particularly of waltzing, and they are much attached to English country dances, in which the most graceful Parisian belle seldom appears to any advantage.

'The interior of the houses belonging to the higher classes in Amsterdam is very elegant; the decoration and furniture of their rooms is very much in the French style: they are also very fond of having a series of landscapes, painted in oil colours, upon the sides of the rooms, instead of stucco or paper, or of ornamenting them with pictures and engravings. The average rent of respectable houses, independent of taxes, is from one thousand to twelve hundred florins. The dinner hour, on account of the exchange, is about four o'clock in this city, and their modes of cooking unite those of England and France: immediately after dinner the whole company adjourn to coffee in the drawing-room.'

Adverting to the civil regulations of Holland, the author directs our attention to the laws relative to debtors; a subject on which we have something to learn:

'Although, owing to the great frugality and industry of the people, an insolvent debtor is rather a rare character, consequently held in more odium in Holland than in most other countries, yet the laws of arrest are milder there than in England. If the debtor be a citizen or registered burgher, he is not subject to have his person seized at the suit of the creditor, until three regular summonses have been duly served upon him, to appear in the proper court, and resist the claim preferred against him, which process is compleated in about a month; after which, if he does not obey it, his person is subject to arrest; but only when he has quitted his house; for in Holland a man's dwelling is held even more sacred than in England, and no civil process whatever is capable of being served upon him, if he stands but on the threshold of his home. In this sanctuary he may set at defiance every claimant; if, however, he has the hardihood to appear abroad, without having satisfied or compromised his debt, he is then pretty sure, from the vigilance and activity of the proper officers, to be seized; in which case he is sent to a house of restriction, not a

prison for fellons, where he is maintained with liberal humanity, the expences of which, as well as of all the proceedings, must be defrayed by the creditor. Under these qualifications, every debtor is liable to arrest, let the amount of the debt be ever so small. The bankrupt laws of Holland differ from ours in this respect, that all the creditors must sign the debtor's certificate, or agreement of liberation; but if any refuse, the ground of their refusal is submitted to arbitrators, who decide whether the bankrupt shall, notwithstanding, have his certificate or not.'

It would be impossible, perhaps, to visit the Dutch without collecting various anecdotes of their extreme frugality; which is known to be a prominent feature in their national character, and to which, in conjunction with their diligence in trade, they owe their wealth.

'This spirit (observes Sir John) of industry and frugality has been for ages, and still continues to be the guardian of this nation, by which it was enabled to support its many, long, and costly wars, and finally to force the King of Spain, its antient master, to recognize its independent sovereignty. Although the Hollanders, before the last war, were the undisputed proprietors of the Indian spices, of the silks of India and China, and of the fine cotton manufactures of Indostan, till a period at no great distance the common people wore plain woollen cloth, and fed on fish and vegetables. So universally powerful was this propensity to economy, that formerly the common people, and even opulent merchants, never changed their fashions, and left off their clothes only because they were worn out. They have been known to purchase the coarse English cloth for their own wear, and sell their own fine Leyden cloths to Germany, Turkey, Portugal, and other countries: they also bought the cheapest butter and cheese in the north of England, and in Ireland, for their own consumption, and sent the best of those articles produced in their own country to foreign markets. The wealth which many individuals accumulated by their parsimonious habits was astonishing. The following anecdote will place this part of the national character in a striking point of view. As the Marquis of Spinola and the President Richardot were going to the Hague in the year 16.8, for the purpose of negotiating a truce with the Dutch, they saw on their way eight or nine persons step out of a little boat, and seat themselves upon the grass, where they made a frugal repast upon some bread, cheese, and beer; each person taking his own provisions from a wallet which he carried behind him. Upon the Spanish embassadors enquiring of a peasent who these travellers were, he replied, to their no little astonishment, "they are the deputies of the states, our sove-"reign lords and masters." Upon which the embassadors exclaimed, "We shall never be able to conquer these people; we must make peace with them." In the history of Sparta we can only look for a similar instance of virtuous simplicity.'

In the author's journey to Zeyst, he passed through a large tract of champagne country, the dull monotony of which is relieved by a vast pyramid erected on an elevated spot by the ar-

my under General Marmont, and dedicated to Bonaparte. We cannot give a copy of the annexed engraving, but, as a curiosity, we transcribe the account of this pyramid.

'On the four sides are the following inscriptions :

'INSCRIPTION ON THE GRAND FRONT.

" This pyramid was raised to the august Emperor of the French, Napoleon the First, by the troops encamped in the plain of Zeyst, being a part of the French and Batavian army, commanded by the Commander in Chief, Marmont."

'INSCRIPTION ON THE SECOND FRONT.

'*Battles gained by the Emperor.*

" The battles of Montenotte, de Dego, and Millesimo, of Mondovi, the passage of the Po, the battle of Lodi, the engagement of Berguetto, the passage of the Mincio, the battles of Lonato, of Castiglione, of the Brenta, of St. Georges, of Arcola, of la Favorite, of Chebreis, of Sediman, of Montabor, of *Aboukir*, of Marengo.

" Wherever he fought he was victorious.

"Through him the empire of France was enlarged by one-third.

" He filled the world with his glory."

'INSCRIPTION ON THE THIRD FRONT.

" He terminated the civil war ; he destroyed all cabals, and caused a wise liberty to succeed to anarchy ; he re established religious worship, he restored the public credit, he enriched the public treasury, he repaired the roads and constructed new ones, he made harbours and canals, he caused the arts and sciences to prosper, he ameliorated the condition of the soldiers—the general peace was his work."

'ON THE FOURTH FRONT.

" The troops encamped in the plains of Zeyst, making part of the French and Batavian army, commanded by the general in chief Marmont, and under his orders, by the generals of division, Grouchy, Boudet, Vignolle, the Batavian Lieutenant, General Dumonseau, the Generals of Brigade, Soyez, &c. [here follows a long list of the names of the other officers, too tedious to enumerate ; also a very long list of the different divisions of the regiments to which the above officers belonged,] have erected this monument to the glory of the Emperor of the French, Napoleon the First, at the epoch of his ascending the throne, and as a token of admiration and love, generals, officers, and soldiers, have all co-operated with equal ardour : it was commenced the *24th Fructidor*, 12 ann , and finished in *thirty-two days.*"

'The whole was designed by the chief of the battalion of engineers. The total height of this stupendous monument is about 36 metres, or 110 French feet ; that of the obelisk, exclusive of the *socle*, is about 13 metres, or 42 French feet. One end of the base of the pyramid is 48 metres, or 148 feet. From the summit of the obelisk the eye ranges over a vast extent of country—Utrecht, Amersfort, Amsterdam, Haarlem, the Hague, Dordrecht, Leyden, Gorcum, Breda, Arnheim, Nimeguen, Boisle Duc, Cleves, Zutphen, De-

wenter, Swol, and a great part of the Zuyder Zee, may be distinctly seen on a fine clear day.

'Upon this spot it is in contemplation immediately to erect a new city, the building of which, and the cutting of a canal to be connected with the adjoining navigation, have already commenced.'

After a glance at Utrecht, Sir John proceeded to Arnheim, Cleves, and Dusseldorf. Here he picks up an anecdote of Murat, and retails it with apparent belief: but we suspect that it was an experiment on the traveller's credulity. Let our readers judge:

'Murat, Grand Duke of Berg, is an instance of the astonishing results of great ability and good fortune. His origin was so very obscure, that very little of it is known. The following anecdote will, however, throw some light upon the extreme humility of his early condition in life. After his elevation to the rank of a prince of the French empire, he halted, in the close of the last war, at a small town in Germany, where he stayed for two or three days; and on finding the bread prepared for his table of an inferior kind, he dispatched one of his suite to order the best baker in the town to attend him, to receive from him his directions respecting this precious article of life. A baker who had been long established in the place was selected for this purpose; and upon the aide-de-camp ordering him to wait upon the prince immediately, he observed, to the no little surprise of the officer—"It is useless my going, the prince will never employ me." Upon being pressed to state his reasons, he declined assigning any; but as the order of the messenger was peremptory, he followed him, and was immediately admitted to Murat, with whom he stayed about ten minutes, and then retired. As he quitted the house in which the prince lodged, he observed to the aide-de-camp, "I told you the prince would not employ me — he has dismissed me with this," displaying a purse of ducats. Upon being again pressed to explain the reason of this singular conduct, he replied, "The Prince Murat, when a boy, was apprenticed to a "biscuit baker in the south of France, at the time I was a journey-"man to him, and I have often threshed him for being idle —the "moment he saw me just now, he instantly remembered me, and "without entering into the subject of our ancient acquaintance, or "of that which led me to his presence, he hastily took this purse of "ducats from the drawer of the table where he sat, gave it to me, "and ordered me to retire."

If Murat's origin be as it is here described, and he wished to conceal the fact from his new subjects, we should suppose that he would have bought the silence of the baker, and not merely have given him money and ordered him to retire.

The flying-bridge across the Rhine having been often mentioned, our readers may be pleased to receive an account of its construction:

'The bell of the flying bridge summoned me on board, and in about five minutes I found myself in the French empire, attended by

French custom-house officers in green costume, who conducted me to the Douane. This ferry cannot fail to impress the mind and excite the curiosity of a stranger: it is formed of a broad platform resting upon two large barges, like our coal lighters; from this platform a vast wooden frame in the shape of a gallows is erected, which is fastened to the former by strong chains of iron, whilst from the centre cross piece, a chain of the same metal of great length, is fixed to the top of an upright pole standing in each of a long line of boats, the remotest of which is at anchor; by this machinery a powerful pressure is obtained; to each of the barges a rudder is affixed, which, upon being placed in an oblique direction, produces a lateral motion upon the stream, which acts as a force from above; so that by changing the rudder to the right or left, the bridge is forced on one side or the other of the river, with equal certainty and celerity. Fifteen hundred persons can with perfect ease be transported at the same time upon these bridges, and carriages and horses are driven upon them without any stoppage, from the banks to which they are lashed, until put in motion. The Germans call this machine the Fliegende Schiffs Brücke, or the volant bridge of boats; the Dutch geer burg, or the bridge in shackles, in allusion to its chains; and the French le pont volant, or the flying bridge.'

We have a very amusing narrative of the author's voyage up the Rhine to Cologne, Bonn, Andernach, Coblentz, Ehrenbreitstein, Boppart, Mayence, and Francfort on the Maine; from which place, on account of the approaching war between France and Prussia, he effects a precipitate retreat. As he passes the cities on the banks of the Rhine, he makes sketches of them; and with his pen he endeavours to give us an idea of the transient scenery. While in the region which produces the Rhenish wine, he attempts to form a classification of wines; and he quits Germany with the following compliment: 'It is a country to which nature has been very bountiful, where the women unite refined accomplishments to the charms of person, and where the men are distinguished for their genius, probity, and indefatigable industry, and both for an unaffected urbanity of manners.'

In closing this work, it is but justice to remark that the tourist has exerted himself to keep alive the attention and interest of the reader. His language, however, is occasionally incorrect,* and the Latin quotations are deformed by press-errors. Of the engravings, which are in *acqua tinta*, we cannot always speak highly: but they serve to enhance the price of the volume, the contents of which, in *good old times*, with unpretending paper and type, and without plates, would have formed a moderate Octavo, at the price of five or six shillings.

* At p. 53. the writer has created a new word, *aqua-terrene*, when the authorized term *terraqueous* might have served his purpose; though neither phrase can be strictly allowable in his application of it.

ART. VII. *The Dormant and Extinct Baronage of England*, or An Historical and Genealogical Account of the Lives, Public Employments, and most memorable Actions, of the English Nobility who have flourished from the Norman Conquest to the Year 1806: deduced from Public Records, ancient Historians, the Works of eminent Heralds, and from other celebrated and approved Authorities. By T. C. Banks, Esq. 4to. pp. 500. Vol. I. 2l. 2s. Boards. White. 1807.

THE study of Genealogy, in the last two centuries, was almost exclusively confined to those to whom it professionally belonged, and to a very few antiquaries, who probably were either interested in the compilation of their own pedigrees, or pursued it as a component part of the general subject of English history. Within these few years, several claims to dormant titles have been examined and allowed; and individuals, (ladies as well as gentlemen,) to whom the nature of tracing descents would have remained utterly unknown, have been excited to perplex their own memories, and to weary their hearers, with genealogical details of supposed inherent nobility.

These considerations appear to have influenced Mr. Banks to lay before the public a work which he announces to be *complete*, since he has consulted all celebrated Heralds, Historians, and Antiquaries, 'in order to furnish information, rectify mistakes, and supply the most perfect and satisfactory truth of statement.' (P. xix.)—The reader is likewise requested to observe that 'its contents are the full substance of Sir W. Dugdale's Baronage.' Yet Mr. B. adds, in a sentence of which the first member is a curious sample of reasoning; '*Wherefore*, if capacity of abilities and mind, industry of research, and advantages of official situation, have hitherto *rendered* their printed volumes *erroneous and defective*; the Editor of these pages can by no means presume to arrogate to himself a superiority of merit above his predecessors in the same line: but as an old adage says, "In a multitude of counsellors there is wisdom;" so he trusts, that in having selected the substance and assertions of the whole multitude of heads who have laboured in the publication of peerage accounts, and biography of noble families; he shall have submitted to the public a work, not unworthy their countenance and approbation.'

The preface also makes a profession which we are warranted in applying to the execution of the work, hence demonstrating the degree of credit which may be given to the author's assertion:

'*Wherefore*, [again] every endeavour has been used to make as full as possible the account of the male and female descents, about the time at which most of the titles deemed extinct have been usually

represented as such, in order that families, who may be inclined to trace back their ancestry, may have an opportunity of comparing their own researches with those statements and genealogical deducements made in this work.'

As farther examples of the perspicuity and elegance with which it is composed, we may transcribe a few sentences at random.

'In process of time honours growing less officiary, after their aids in the wars of Edward III. a barony by patent (more in reward of merit or favour), came in use to make amends for the past services and expences of a faithful subject; which mode supplied the defects of a barony by tenure, which were continually swallowed up in greater titles, and eclipsed by its own scarcity.'

'Their titles have ceased, (or *may be* are imagined to have terminated,)' &c. *Dedication*, p. 1.

'On comparing *of* Dugdale's Baronage, with his Lists of Summons to Parliament, it will be seen, that in the latter are contained the names of many persons who had summons *thereto*, of whom no mention is made in the former celebrated work. *Wherefore*, to furnish as ample an account as possible of the ancient baronage of this kingdom, the complete index of those who ever had summons to parliament to Dugdale's time, is *hereto* annexed; by which the reader will have combined in one work, the perfect substance of the contents of two of the most valuable publications of that much esteemed author.' *Appendix*, p. 1.

'On consulting, however, *of* that very eminent antiquary, Selden, we find (p. 708), that whereas in the reigns of the several monarchs previous to king John, every tenant in chief was indifferently an honorary or parliamentary baron, *by reason* of his tenure, or lands held, which made his barony;' &c. *Ibid.*

Against new words we generally protest, and we cannot but consider such as *oftenly*, *revolvment*, *disknowlege*, and *consimilitated*, as unjustifiable innovations.

Our present business, however, is not so much with faults in composition, as with errors or defects in the statement of facts; and our duty to the public imperiously calls on us not to suffer a work like the present to gain a false confidence, or allow that it may be safely quoted by antiquaries and topographers: who, "good easy men," are too ready to take these recondite matters on trust.

In the first part, an account is given, alphabetically, of those barons by tenure whose honours expired 'circ. 49. Henry III.' The first article affords a specimen of the author's manner, which, we confess, appears to us to be consise rather than satisfactory, especially as we are ingeniously referred to an unpublished volume, or perhaps to Dr. Nash's History of Worcestershire.

'ABITOT.

'ABITOT.

'ARMS—Vide Abitot earl of Worcester.

'URSO DE ABITOT, in some ancient records is called "Urso vicecomes," *in regard* he was hereditary sheriff of Worcestershire, being likewise constable of the castle of Worcester; under which title is a further account of him and of his descendants.'

In p. 5. Mr. Banks states that 'from the said Eustace de Greinville is lineally descended the present flourishing and illustrious family of that name:' yet we can positively assert, on the fullest testimony, that the said E. de G. died without issue.— The account of the singular Earldom of Arundel is inimitable confusion: but why, as the title is still existing, is it here placed among the dormant or extinct peerages, of which only the author professes to treat? Mr. Banks has consolidated two Williams de Albini into one, having made the *apparently* same man come in with William the Conqueror, outlive him, marry the widow of his youngest son, by whom he had a numerous issue, and after that, receive *his* earldom from Henry II., who succeeded in 1154, eighty-eight years after the Conquest. Lord Orford (p. 15.) certainly forgot that the first lord Arundel of Wardour was created by James I., but the error is unnoticed in the present work.

'DEBEVERER.

'ARMS—G. two Bends Wavey. O.

'DRU or DROGO DE BEVOUR, was a Fleming, who came in with the Conqueror, and for his good services was rewarded by him with all that part of Yorkshire called Holdernesse. He had also other lands in Leicestershire and Lincolnshire. Having married a near kinswoman to the Conqueror, he by some unlucky chance killed her, and retired again into Flanders, and no more is said of him. Though Dugdale omits it, other historians say he poisoned her.'

Prior has a well known distich on an event certainly fabulous, yet not much unlike this:

"He drew his bow and struck at random
And killed his wife for a memorandum."

At p. 145, Mr B. treats of 'Musard,' whose chief seat of barony is stated to have been at Stavely, Co. Derby. Had Domesday-book been consulted, it would have been found that the manor of "Grene Hamsted" in Gloucestershire was granted to Hasculf Musard, whose descendants fixed that manor as the chief of "*Baronia de Musarden*," (the modern name,) paramount over five others in the first mentioned county and four in Warwickshire. This is particularized by Dugdale.—Mr. B. also gravely informs us (p. 173,) that 'Alberic de Vere junior was made hereditary Lord Chancellor of England'!

Few

Few pedigrees have been more critically investigated than that of the Talbots of Bashall and Thornton, but it was never before pretended, as in p. 179, that they descended from the Geofry Talbot there mentioned. Their ancestor, in 18 Hen. was Hugh Talbot.

Let such of our readers as have Dugdale on their shelves compare his Baronage, b. i. p. 543, with Mr. B.'s 'Traili,' p 185.

'Arms—O. a cross engrailed between four Martlets. G.

'William de Traili, with William, Gilbert, and Nicholas, all sons to Albreda, second sister to Walter Espec, were witnesses, in the time of Henry I. to his charter of foundation, at Kirkham, in Yorkshire.

'To this Geffery succeeded Walter, his son; who had a brother that became a monk, and two sisters, of whom one was married, and the other was a nun.'

We do not see any sufficient reason for the barons of the County Palatine of Chester occupying the whole of the Second Part. Allowing the curiosity of the information, it would have been better given in a supplement. None of them received summons to parliament.

Part III. includes 'an account of those barons, who, after the establishment of the titular honours, were summoned to parliament, in whose persons the barony terminated; or who, or their posterity, (although existing) did not continue regularly or *successionally* to have the like summons.'

P. 236, in the pedigree of Basset of Lapcoate is a glaring defect. The elder brother of Samuel Pole was German Pole, but he is here *totally omitted.* His great grand daughter Anna Maria Price is the present Countess of Ormond, and the heir of that moiety of the barony which devolved on the eldest of the two Coheirs of the last baron.—There were two distinct families of Chandos, the one baronial and the other knightly. No descent is given of the present heirs of the family who enjoyed the barony, but the author takes great pains to shew the descendants of that line in which no barony ever existed.

P. 331. 'Grandison.'—For the issue of Thomas Grandison, heirs of this barony, see *Inquis. p. mort.* 49 Edw. III. p. 2. no. 62.

It appears to us that the statement of the barony of Lascells is invidiously and illiberally given, (p. 356). Mr. B. needs to be informed that Roger de Lascells died soon after his last summons, and left four daughters, all of whom were married before their father's death. He asserts that the present Lord Harewood is of 'recent and humble extraction,' from the evidence of an epitaph, which he mentions but does not quote, on H. Lascells, who died in 1753, 'a collector of the crown revenues

revenues at Barbadoes.' That no pedigree attempting to derive the present peer from the antient baron was ever seen, we will venture to say. Of the modern genealogists who have *consimilitated* the descent, we know nothing: but this we know, that the lineal ancestry of H. Lascelles, so degradingly mentioned, can be derived from a stock of the date of Edward II.; and that his immediate maternal ancestors were the daughters of baronets, in an age in which baronets were not so multitudinous as they now are.

Nothing occurs relative to the barons Rivers, who were summoned from 27 Edward I. to 9 Edward II.;—and Henry de Tregoz, summoned from 22 Edward I. to 15 Edward II., although enumerated by Dugdale, is sunken by the present accurate author in hopeless oblivion.

P. 435. *Vavasour.* After 'Elizabeth, wife of Sir Robert Strelly, knt.', should be added, *in whose heirs the barony still exists.* 'Of this family, (says Mr. B.) it was remarked that in twenty one descents from Sir Mauger Le Vavasour, (temp. Will. I.) not *one* of them had ever married an heir, or ever buried *their wives.*' This tale of wonder, we beg to inform Mr. B. and his readers, is not founded in fact; at least the first part of it. Vavasour of Hazlewood, Denton, and Spaldington, bore the arms of De Cockfield, Power, and Delahay, in right of heirs female, before the reign of Henry the Sixth.

We have thus shewn that implicit reliance can by no means be placed on this work, and that it is far indeed from redeeming the pledges which the author commences by offering. It is not, however, our intention to insinuate that *no* accurate statements occur in the volume, nor that *all* of them are inadequate to their purpose: but, on such a subject, and with such pretensions, the exact reverse ought to be the fact. We shall quote the account of the barony of Beauchamp as a favourable sample, and as corresponding to the character which the author assumes for the whole.—This barony has been considered as extinct, until lately: but an existing descent was first pointed out by Mr. Lysons in his *Environs of London*; from whom, and from other sources, Mr. Banks has compiled the present account:

'BEAUCHAMP OF BEDFORD.

'Arms—Quarterly O. and G. a Bend of the second.

'Hugh de Beauchamp came into England with the Conqueror, by whose gift he had forty-three lordships, the greatest part in Bedfordshire: * this Hugh had three sons; Simon, Pain, and Milo. Simon

* The barony of Bedford, of which the castle was the head, is said to have been holden by the service of performing the office of almoner

Simon is said to have died without issue, and Pain, his brother, succeeded him; who married Rohais, daughter of Alberic de Vere, justice of England, temp. Henry I.

'Simon, his son, was his successor, who had divers sons, *which* held the castle of Bedford against king Stephen, because they heard the king had given their sister in marriage (with the whole barony of Bedford), unto Hugh (surnamed Pauper), brother to the earl of Leicester. He died 9th John, when

'William, his son, was his successor, who was amongst the rebellious barons against king John, as also Henry III. as is manifest, from his being taken prisoner at the battle of Lincoln, the 1st of Henry III. He, however, afterwards submitted to obedience, and was received into favour; and having obtained an honourable fame for many great exploits, as well as for acts of munificence to divers religious houses, died the 44th Henry III. To whom succeeded Simon, his son and heir (as presumed), who died soon after, viz. 47th Henry III. leaving issue one sole daughter and heir, Joane; whose wardship was granted by the king to Thomas earl of Flanders. But he had a brother, William, who survived him only a short time, when another brother, John, became next baron; who, the 49th of Henry III. had livery of this inheritance: but taking part with the rebellious barons, was slain at the battle of Evesham, whereupon the king gave all his lands to prince Edward, his eldest son; yet soon after, by the decree of Kenelworth, there being a special composition made for those forfeitures, Maud de Moubray, wife to Roger de Monbray, Beatrix, the wife of Thomas Fitz-Otes, Joane, Ida, and Isabel, daughters of Ela, wife of Baldwin Wake, cousins and heirs to Joane de Beauchamp, daughters of Simon beforementioned, (which Maud, Ela, and Beatrix, were sisters to the said Simon, William, and John) had livery of that inheritance. After this, viz. 6th Edward I. Amicia, the widow of the last mentioned William de Beauchamp, being dead, partition was made of those lands which she held in dower, betwixt Roger, son of Roger de Moubray and Maud Beauchamp beforementioned; John de Steingrave and Ida his wife; John de Orreby and Elizabeth his wife; Michael Picot and Joane his wife; William de Munchensi, of Edwardeston, and Beatrix his wife, next heirs of the said William de Beauchamp, who died the 44th of Henry III.

'Some of the descendants of these coheirs continued for many generations to possess either entirely or in portions, manors which had been parcel of this barony.

'The barons of Bedford having been anciently lord almoners to the kings of England on the day of their coronation, Thomas de Moubray, as one of their coheirs, by the marriage of his ancestor with

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almoner to the kings of England on the day of their coronation; and to have certain fees, viz. the silver bason, or alms dish, and the distributing all the silver therein, with the fine linen towel, and the distribution of all the cloth spread on the ground on which their majesties walk; with a tun of wine, &c. At the coronation of James II. there was only allowed the silver alms dish, with the distribution of the cloth on which the king walked.

Maud

Maud de Beauchamp and John lord Latimer, as inheriting a part of the barony which had passed in marriage with Maud, caughter of Beatrix de Beauchamp, to the Botetourts, claimed this office, with its perquisites, at the coronation of king Henry IV. The claim of lord Latimer was allowed, and Sir Thomas Grey was appointed to represent Thomas de Moubray, whose lands were then in the king's hands.

'At the coronation of James II. the earl of Exeter, descended from the Latimers, by marriage with Lucy, one of the four daughters and coheiresses of John Neville, the last lord Latimer, Sir George Blundell, descended from Ela de Beauchamp, through the Picotts (or Pigotts), and Gascoignes, and Thomas Snag, esquire, who possessed some other lands, parcel of the barony (by purchase, as presumed), claimed the office of almoner, which was adjudged for that time to the earl of Exeter.

'The only known descendants in lineal succession from the three daughters of William de Beauchamp, baron of Bedford, are from Maud, the eldest daughter, through the coheiresses of Moubray, the duke of Norfolk, the earls of Suffolk, Carlisle, and Effingham, the lords Stourton, Petre, and the earl of Berkley; the earl of Peterborough, the duke of Leeds, Sir William Wake, baronet, Sir John Reade, baronet, the earl of Guilford, and Sir Richard Bedingfield, baronet, all descended from Ela, the second daughter of William de Beachamp, through the Pateshulls; and the duke of Beaufort the earl of Leisester, the duke of Marlborough, and Thomas Clifford, esquire, descended (through the Botetourts), from Beatrix, third daughter of the said William Beauchamp.

An index is added, containing the dates of summons of each peerthrown into that form from Dugdale, and thus brought immediately under view: but we have no index referring to the pages of the volume, which is "the very soul" of a book of this nature. We presume that it is reserved, with other necessary intelligence, for the second volume.

The facetious author of the "*Miseries of Human Life*," were he duly acquainted with the merits of this publication, would perhaps describe a country squire and his lady, of good ancestry, fancying from a mere identity of surname that they were intitled to a peerage of the realm; following up its "*jack o' lanthorn*" intelligence with inconceivable ardour; and journeying, once in every year of their long lives, to the metropolis, in order to consult the learned, at the expence of the patrimonial acres, and for the sole honour and pleasure of appearing *eternally* before the bar of a certain great house. Their eventual disappointment and wrongs we will not deride, but in good truth Mr. Banks would have to answer for them.

Dall...y.

ART. VIII. *Observations on a Journey through Spain and Italy to Naples;* and thence to Smyrna and Constantinople: comprising a Description of the principal Places in that Route, and Remarks on the present Natural and Political State of those Countries. By Robert Semple, Author of *Walks and Sketches at the Cape of Good Hope,* &c. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1807.

IN our 43d vol. p. 78. we made our readers somewhat acquainted with Mr. Semple, as the writer of the *Walks and Sketches at the Cape,* and gave him that credit which he appeared to deserve as a tourist and a man, while we also pointed out his defects as a writer. From the preface to the present work, it may be suspected that he feels sore from some criticisms which he has formerly undergone, (though not, we believe, from *our* remarks,) and consequently he displays himself as one of the *genus irritabile.* He observes 'that men can publish severe remarks on a book which they have not sufficient talents to write;' and that 'an *ignorant* or *malevolent hireling* may falsely accuse him of vulgarity, childishness, and indecency, yet he remains without defence.' He then deprecates the exercise of 'the strict laws of criticism' in favor of the writers of *travels,* who are seldom authors by profession; and who may be deterred, by the fear of a merciless Aristarchus, from communicating to the world the amusing or the important results of their visits to foreign countries.

Now we never can either abandon or compromise the cause of criticism, nor allow with Mr. Semple that its increase is 'the decay of genius.' Faulty critics may exist, but their faults will ultimately be their own punishment; and authors may declaim against critics, but those who are not amenable to censure neither fear it nor despise it. As to the plea in favour of tourists, it must be allowed that the advantages, which the public can derive from the perusal of travels, must be proportioned to their quantum of information entirely new, or corrective of the errors of former writers; and that grammatical propriety, at least, is altogether necessary to convey it. It will be seen what are Mr. Semple's claims in these respects.

We formerly hinted at the inaccuracy of this gentleman's style, and we cannot now announce any improvement of it. In the second page of his preface, we meet with this inelegant expression, 'he should by no means let the world know *of* it.'—Vol. i. p. 122. 'What man could be more happy than *me*?'—P. 137. 'Four leagues brings us to Ecija.'—P. 158. 'Not one but would tell you.' A similar taste, both in construction and phraseology, is discernible throughout the work. The indiscriminate and alternate use of the present and the past tenses also

abounds

abounds in the volumes, and sometimes occurs even in the same sentence. P. 52. vol. i. 'In a short time we *arrive* at La Cruz de Malta, where I *desired* our postillion to stop.'—P. 143. 'Early this morning *am* again on horseback.' 'Here I *was* again detained for want of horses.'—Vol ii. p. 129. '*Walk* along the shore,—and *turned* off to the left.'—A *chef d'œuvre* of grammatical confusion is displayed in vol. ii. p. 47. 'at *present*, I *had* no time.' Quitting, however, these characteristics of Mr. S. as an English scholar, we are sorry that we cannot proceed to appreciate more highly his classical knowlege, particularly as he boasts an acquaintance with Virgil, Livy, and Horace. At vol. ii. p. 53. he says 'Magnificent temples are dedicated to the Virgin Mary, under the title of equal with God, *Dei-paræ Virgini'!*

It would be easy to swell our specifications of Mr. Semple's incorrect style, but the preceding instances may suffice. Our duty as critics obliged us to take notice of it; and his attack on the "*brotherhood of* this *holy profession*" may have prepared him for a retort, but it should also have induced him to have rendered himself less open to assault.—On the possession of a good *memory*, however, we suppose that we must compliment Mr. S.; for he informs us that, 'having while at Smyrna sketched upon the spot the characters of the Turks and Greeks,' the remainder of his narrative was written during his passage to England: but that, being induced by the heat to write on deck, on the first day of his attempt 'a sudden gust of wind carried all his notes overboard,' and the task was subsequently pursued by the assistance only of recollection. Under this deprivation, he certainly has merit in having produced a work which contains some interesting passages, and some faithful delineations: a few of which it is now the more pleasing part of our office to point out and to quote.

Dall.
8 G. 2.

The journey commences at Lisbon, in June 1805, which city is described as being of great commercial consequence, but as addicted to the grossest superstitions:

'The part of Lisbon most deserving of attention is that which suffered so severely in the dreadful earthquake of 1755. It is not merely that all the flat at the foot of the amphitheatre of the surrounding hills is rebuilt in a regular manner, and excellently paved; but the ruins of great buildings still remaining on the tops of the heights in the heart of a populous city, have a singular and striking effect. Other nations erect monuments at a great expense, in commemoration of battles, earthquakes, and wide wasting fires. But nothing can speak so home to the heart as these awful remains which stand in perpetual memento to the inhabitants of Lisbon, of what has happened, and may again happen to the city.'

At

At Madrid, Mr. S. compares the national character of the Spaniards and Portuguese:

'One of my companions having business to transact here, we remain the rest of the day, and have time to observe, that even in the frontier towns, a strong line of distinction is drawn between the two nations. The Spaniard is more determined in his gait and manners; his cloak thrown over his shoulders gives him something of the air of a man of courage, whilst the same custom with the Portuguese manners gives only the look of an assassin. But if we notice the difference between the men, it is still more apparent in the women of the two countries. The air, the dress, the walk of the Spanish ladies is not only superior to that of their neighbours, but perhaps of any European nation. The lower part of their dress is black, with deep fringes; the upper consists simply of a white muslin veil, which, without covering the face, falls down on each side of the head, crosses over the bosom, and is fastened behind the back. They walk with freedom; their eyes are dark and expressive, and their whole countenances have that bewitching air which an Englishman likes well enough to see in any woman except his wife, his sister, or the woman he truly loves and respects.'

The customs and domestic manners of the inhabitants are well drawn. At St. Ildephonso, the tourist notices the formal gardens and fountains, 'one of which throws up a considerable column of water to the height of 50 feet, and is then clearly visible from Segovia, at the distance of 10 miles.' (p. 89).—What a singular obeslisk!—Of the Escorial, Mr. S. has nothing new to relate.—Having arrived at Cadiz a few days after Nelson's victory off Trafalgar*, he gives an idea of the extreme dismay prevailing there:

'Ten days after the battle, they were still employed in bringing ashore the wounded, and spectacles were hourly displayed at the wharfs and through the streets sufficient to shock every heart not yet hardened to scenes of blood and human sufferings. When by the carelessness of the boatmen, and the surging of the sea, the boats struck against the stone piers, a horrid cry which pierced the soul arose from the mangled wretches on board. Many of the Spanish gentry assisted in bringing them ashore, with symptoms of much compassion; yet as they were finely dressed it had something of the appearance of ostentation, if there could be ostentation at such a moment. It need not be doubted that an Englishman lent a willing hand to bear them up the steps to their litters; yet the slightest false step made them shriek out, and I even yet shudder at the remembrance of the sound. On the tops of the pier the scene was affecting. The wounded were carrying away to the hospitals in every shape of human misery, whilst crowds of Spaniards either assisted or looked on with signs of horror. Meanwhile their companions, who had escaped unhurt, walked up and down with folded arms and downcast eyes, whilst women sat upon heaps of arms, broken furni-

* Mr. S. is an American by birth, and travelled under the sanction of that character.

ture

ture and baggage, with their heads bent between their knees. I had no inclination to follow the litters of the wounded; yet I learned that every hospital in Cadiz was already full, and that convents and churches were forced to be appropriated to the reception of the remainder. If leaving the harbour I passed through the town to the point, I still beheld the terrible effects of the battle. As far as the eye could reach, the sandy side of the Isthmus, bordering on the Atlantic, was covered with masts and yards, the wrecks of ships, and here and there bodies of the dead. Among others I noticed a topmast marked with the name of the Swiftsure, and the broad arrow of England, which only increased my anxiety to know how far the English had suffered; the Spaniards still continuing to affirm that they [the English] have lost their chief admiral and half their fleet. While surrounded by these wrecks, I mounted on the cross-trees of a mast which had been thrown ashore, and casting my eyes over the ocean, beheld at a great distance, several masts and portions of wreck still floating about. As the sea was now almost calm, with a slight swell, the effect produced by these objects had in it something of a sublime melancholy, and touched the soul with a remembrance of the sad vicissitudes of human affairs. The portions of floating wreck were visible from the ramparts; yet not a boat dared to venture out to examine or endeavour to tow them in, such was the apprehensions which still filled their minds, of the enemy.

'Finally, it was interesting, although in a different point of view from any that I have hitherto touched on, to observe the different effect produced on the Spaniards and French by a common calamity. The Spaniard, more than usually grave and sedate, plunged into a profound melancholy, seemed to struggle with himself whether he should seek within his soul fresh resources against unwilling enemies, or turn his rage against his perfidious allies. The French, on the contrary, were now beginning to mingle threats and indecent oaths with those occasional fits of melancholy, which repeated and repeated proofs of defeat still continued to press upon them, as it were, in spite of their endeavours to the contrary. Not one of them but would tell you, that if every ship had fought like his, the English would have been utterly defeated.'

A waiter at an inn remarked to Mr. S., "by sea these English are innumerable, and fight well enough, but by land they can do nothing." We suspect that late events in South America will not tend to correct the latter part of this sentiment.

G.2.

We add the anecdotes at the conclusion of the first volume:

'The King is a man of good intentions, but of confined understanding, and a mere slave to the pleasures of the chace, which forms not only his sole diversion, but his principal occupation. His thoughts are constantly engaged by partridges, hares, and wild boars; and his greatest exploit is to have fired so many guns in the course of a day. These are constantly presented to him ready loaded by his huntsmen, as fast as he can discharge them, and hence the slaughter which he sometimes makes is almost incredible. It must

be owned that he is an excellent marksman; but what is more to his credit he seems to be aware of the fatal effects of this blind passion in the monarch of a great kingdom, and has given strict orders that his sons should not be allowed to acquire similar propensities. In his person he is very tall and stout, and is generally healthy, owing no doubt to the constant exercise which he takes, and his temperance in drinking, water being his sole beverage. Such is the present King of Spain. His consort forms the reverse to his insensible character, being intriguing, revengeful, and a slave to far other passions than those of the chace. "It is through her," say the Spaniards secretly, "that royalty is degraded, and the Spanish name dishonoured. To gratify her unworthy passions, a wretch has been raised from the ranks, to domineer over our nobility, and sell our country to France." Such however is the case. The man of the greatest power at present in Spain is the Prince of [the] Peace, as he has been entitled, formerly a life-guardsman, and raised with rapidity to the highest honours, merely for being the queen's paramour. As she has however long lost the charms of youth, this man treats her with great neglect, and maintains himself in despotic power merely by the influence of France, or, in other words, by strictly obeying the smallest mandate of that country. The queen in her turn now detests him, and has lately taken into favour a young man not yet twenty years of age, from among the guards. But it is too late: the power of the slave of France is not to be shaken by a bad woman's wiles, and it is a foreign government alone that can deprive him of it. He is universally hated; but that is in private: before him even the Grandees of Spain must wear a smile, and Madrid is full of his spies. He is however sagely aware of the uncertainty of revolutions, and is said to have deposited large sums of money in foreign banks, besides having great quantities of specie secretly hoarded in his own possession. Meanwhile he maintains the state of a king: his palaces are magnificent; and his own regiment of dragoons always near him, mount guard at his gate, and send detachments to attend him wherever he goes. I have witnessed the secret curses that attended his progress; but the sabres of his dragoons are sharp, and woe betide the Spaniard who is heard to murmur. In his person he is tall and well formed, of a ruddy countenance, not unlike an Englishman; but he has not their air of freedom, and is upon the whole a man of very moderate talents.'

In the 2d vol. p. 101. Mr. S. gives us a sketch of the Neapolitan character, which, from personal knowlege, we believe to be correct:

'The Italians are a singular mixture of eagerness and cunning, of mildness and violence, of superstition and of irreligion. They are vehement in their gestures on trivial occasions; but at the very time that they appear absorbed in the violence of passion, they are full of duplicity, and grow cool in a moment if they see any advantage in doing so. They affect to speak with great mildness, and appearance of regard even to an absolute stranger, and yet suddenly break out into violent fits of passion. They will talk lightly of the church, and

turn their priests into ridicule; but after uttering an irreligious jest, a secret awe seems to drive them to the altar, where they kneel and receive the sacrament from the very hand which they have ridiculed. No people that I have ever yet seen descends so low in order to excite compassion. If they gain their object by any means, they are satisfied, and in order to effect this, fawn upon strangers in a manner that quickly becomes tedious and soon disgusting. They feel with greater accuracy than they reason, and are more apt to mislead themselves when they take time to deliberate, than when they act from the impulse of the moment. The mildness of their climate inspires them with cheerfulness, and they give themselves up with ardour to every pleasure, even the most trifling; yet their looks are composed and even grave, and their walk has nothing in it which indicates levity.

'In the observance of the matrimonial engagements, no people can be more lax, nor is there any country where jealousy is so little known, nor, indeed, where it would be so very useless. When instances of private restraint or rebuke are strengthened by a considerable decency of general manners, that restraint or rebuke may be of some avail. But what benefit can arise from it, when the whole mass is corrupted, when the cottage of the peasant is contaminated, and when the most flagrant instances of disregard to female honour are to be sought for among the nobility and upon the throne. Italian jealousy scarcely now exists, except upon the stage, or in old romances. This however is not the case with lovers previous to marriage. Then the parties are strictly tenacious of their rights, and the slightest symptoms of indifference or infidelity, are often punished in a terrible manner.

'I could not but notice, both in Spain and Italy, the avidity with which, at the theatres, the male part of the audience seized every expression which alluded disrespectfully to women. Such passages were uniformly received with unmanly laughter and applause, as if it was a great triumph obtained over their female friends. The ladies in both countries join in the laugh; but they know how to take their revenge.'

At Rome, Naples, and Constantinople the traveller passed only a few days, and the very little that he says of those cities has often been said before.—Leaving Malta, he soon came in sight of Cerigo, the Cythèra mentioned by Virgil, (Æn. L. 10. v. 51.) on which he observes, notwithstanding his being so conversant with that poet, 'this island with its name has also changed its appearance, and *Serigo* no longer recalls the idea of the antient Cythe*rea*'. These names are neither antient nor modern.—Mr. S. landed on the Trojan shore, where he noticed 'tumuli or barrows which perhaps cover the remains of Homer's heroes, Patroclus, Achilles, or *my favourite* Hector.' (vol. ii. p. 163.)—Thus Mr. S. journies on and writes with equal success and rapidity. He has yet to learn that objects, which strike the eye forcibly as they pass in review at the

moment, cannot be satisfactorily offered to the contemplation of the public, without mature consideration whether that which appears important to the traveller himself can be made equally interesting to the readers of travels.—The work concludes with a political survey of the Levant, and the old project of adding the Greek isles to the colonies of the British empire.

Dally.

ART. IX. *Journal of a Tour in Ireland, A. D.* 1806. By Sir Richard Colt Hoare, Bart. F.R.S. F.A.S. 8vo. pp. 336. 10s. 6d. Boards. Miller. 1807.

THAT a nation in which accounts of distant voyages and foreign travels are in great request, which boasts of a society for exploring the interior of an almost unknown quarter of the globe, and in which every species of information is highly valued and encouraged, should remain in ignorance not only of particular districts but of large divisions of its own empire, is a fact which we cannot deny, though it may excite some surprize. How much, indeed, this has been and still is the case is well known to those who have a turn for studies of that nature; and the fact may be collected from the recent labours that have been intended to remedy the defect. With regret we state that the work before us will rather indicate the dearth of this species of information in regard to Ireland, than supply the desideratum and remove the reproach. We thus impeach not, however, the qualifications of the able and learned editor of Giraldus, for an undertaking of this sort: on the contrary, few writers possess them in an equal degree: but his excursion has been a flying one; and all that could be expected to be accomplished in the time,—to say the least,—he has effected. Nevertheless, the more satisfactory his hints and remarks are, the more we lament that their place is not occupied by detailed accounts and well matured observations; and, while we are disappointed at the information not being more copious, we cannot too much commend the ingenuousness of the author, who constantly apprizes us of the incompleteness of his statements.

Though the disadvantages under which this volume labours are great, we must still allow that it may be not only very useful to tourists and travellers in the sister island, but that it will considerably gratify the mere reader, and engage his acknowlegements to the rapid pen from which it proceeds. The future visitors of Ireland will hence derive great assistance in planning their tour; they will be apprized of the spots to which striking scenery and antique remains, whether aboriginal or monastic, give superior interest; and the general reader will possess himself of heads of inquiry, to which he may direct his

conversation

conversation with those who are acquainted with Ireland, whether natives or travellers. We shall also, we hope, be able to extract from it a number of particulars that will form an amusing and acceptable article.

It is observed by the author that

'Whilst the opposite coasts of Wales and Scotland, have for many successive years attracted the notice and admiration of the man of taste, and of the artist; whilst the press has so teemed with publications, pointing out their natural beauties, and works of military and monastick art, that little more is left to be described; whilst Wales and Scotland, I say, have had the assistance of the historian's pen to record their annals, and of the artist's pencil to pourtray their natural and artificial curiosities, the island of Hibernia still remains unvisited and unknown. And why? Because from the want of books, and living information, we have been led to suppose its country rude, its inhabitants savage, its paths dangerous.

'The love of literature, however, seems to be gaining ground daily in Ireland, as well as in the remoter districts of the sister kingdom; and particularly that class of it which will tend ultimately to make its provinces more frequented, and better known; which will not only excite the attention of the stranger, but point out natural beauties and curiosities unexplored even by the native. I allude to the general topography of the country, which has received a partial illustration from the stasistical surveys lately published *.

'Statistical accounts have been published of the counties of Dublin, Wicklow, Kilkenny, Queen's County, Cavan, Armagh, Monaghan, Meath, Down, Londonderry, Tyrone, Donegal, Sligo, Leitrim, and Mayo.

'When we consider, that the first well digested Tour through Wales bears so late a date as 1781 †, and when we look over the voluminous list of subsequent publications on the same subject, that have issued from the press in the short period of twenty-five years, may we not expect that the same spirit of inquiry will extend itself gradually into this country?"

'* Every lover of literature will be glad to hear, that Dr. Beaufort, the author of the excellent Memoir and Map of Ireland, is engaged in a topographical description of Ireland upon an enlarged scale; and much may be expected from his indefatigable zeal, and the knowledge he possesses of his native country. A History of Dublin has also been announced for publication, in which much new and accurate information may be expected from its authors, Mr. Warburton, Keeper of the Records, and the Rev. Mr Whitelawe, who has already laid before the public an interesting, though melancholy account of the state of some parts of the metropolis.

'† A Tour through North and South Wales, by H. P. Wyndham Esq. 1 vol 4to. 1781. A small work, entitled, A Gentleman's Tour in Wales, was published by the same author, in 1774, and this is the first tour I recollect to have seen, that merits either credit or attention.'

In the remainder of the preface, the principal writers who treat of Ireland are neatly characterized; and it is added:

'The Irish Tourist may think himself fortunate, in having two good maps, and an excellent Itinerary, to direct his steps. The map by Taylor is the best for travellers, but that by Dr. Beaufort, annexed to his Memoir, is much fuller, and contains the names of many more places: it is more properly called an Ecclesiastical Map of Ireland. There is also a Book of Roads, by Taylor and Skinner, which may be found useful. The best Itinerary is that by Wilson, entitled, The Post Chaise Companion, and far superior to the one lately published by Sleater. It is indeed the best Iter I ever saw, as it points out the greater part of the antiquities and objects worthy of notice. The descriptions of the two Irish wonders, the Lake of Killarney, and the Giant's Causeway, are ample, and well drawn up. In two respects only it seems to fail, namely, in giving more merit and beauty to the gentlemen's demesnes than they deserve, and in not pointing out to the traveller the best inns on the road, and those especially where he can find a supply of post horses.

'Dr. Beaufort's Memoir, and Seward's Topographical Dictionary, will be found useful books.'

The defect here pointed out in the *Iter* is supplied in the present volume.

Sir Richard is of opinion that Ireland was peopled from Gaul and Belgium, much in the same way with Britain: but this is a subject that invites more full investigation than it has yet undergone. The information to be derived from antient authors in regard to it is scanty: but the passages that exist should be collected, and much light might be derived from a comparison of the antient monuments and dialects of the two countries. The account which the present author gives of the early state of Ireland, in his Introduction, though brief, is interesting, and is not less chaste than judicious. The progress of the Milesians from Phenicia, their settlement in Hibernia, the marvellous legislator Ollam Fodlah, the assemblies of Tara, and the literary judicatures which distinguished our sister island prior to the Christian æra, do not figure in his pages: but we find in them a pleasing sketch of the progress of the first British invaders of the country, in which Sir Richard follows his old friend Giraldus, whom he vindicates. The portraits of these chieftains, taken from the same antient historian, add much to the interest of this volume. Two of them, those of Strongbow and Reymond, a relation of Giraldus, we are tempted to give in the original; since they claim attention as specimens of the attainments of an archdeacon of Brecknock in the twelfth century. Of Strongbow, Giraldus says:

'*Comiti verò modus hic erat. Vir rubrufus, lentiginosus, oculis glaucis, facie fœminâ, voce exili, collo contracto, per cetera ferè cuncta, corpore procero,*

procero, vir liberalis et lenis. Quod re non poterat, verborum suavitate componebat. Togatus et inermis parere paratior, quàm imperare. Extra bellum plus militis, quàm ducis; in bello vero plus ducis quàm militis habens; omnia suorum audens consilio; nihil unquam ex se vel armis aggrediens vel animositate præsumens. In prælio positus fixum suis recuperationis et refugii signum manebat. In utraque belli fortunâ stabilis et constans, nec casibus adversis desperatione fluctuans, nec secundis ullâ levitate discurrens.'

Reymond is thus described;

' Erat itaque Reymundus vir amplæ quantitatis, staturæque paulo plus quàm mediocris; capillis flavis et subcrispis, oculis grossis, glaucis et rotundis, naso mediocriter elato, vultu colorato, hilari ac sereno; et quanquam carnosâ superfluitate ventre turgescens, naturalem tamen corporis gravitatem innatâ cordis redimens vivacitate, carnis vitium animi virtute levabat. Super exercitus cura noctes ducebat insomnes, et tanquam excubiarum excubator, mirabili sollicitudine nocte totâ circumeundo gyronagus, clamosus, errabundus excubare solebat. Felix in hoc et fortunatus, quod vel nunquam, vel rarissimè, cui præerat, manus, aut temerariis ausibus, aut per incuriam oberraverit. Vir modestus et providus, nec cibo nec veste delicatus. Caloris ei algorisque patientia par; vir patiens iræ, patiensque laboris. Quibus præsidebat, prodesse magis quàm præesse, potiusque minister quàm magister videri volens. Ut autem viri virtutes, mores et modos sub brevitate concludam; vir erat liberalis et lenis, providus et prudens. Et quanquam animosus plurimùm, et armis instructus, prudentiâ tamen rebus in Martiis et providentiâ præcellebat. Vir in utroque laudabilis, multum quidem militis habens, plus quàm ducis.'

Sir Richard does not deny the charge which has been made that the pencil of this artist was partial, but he adds: ' When we consider, that the transactions were recorded by him in the year 1187, and only seventeen years after the events took place, it would be the height of injustice in us not to allow to *him* more credit and responsibility than to the *modern* historians, who record those events at a much later period.'

The author sets out from Dublin in the latter end of June 1806, and arrives at Killarney on the 12th of the ensuing month. In a note at p. 17. we meet with a hint which seems to deserve the attention of the inhabitants of the capital:

' St. Stephen's Green is esteemed the largest square in Europe, and its circumference is little short of an English mile: a broad gravel walk, separated from the street by a low wall, and from the green by a dirty and stinking ditch, encircles the whole area, which is shaded by trees. This spacious green presents the level surface of a meadow, broken only by an equestrian statue of King George the Second in the centre. I am rather surprised that the spirit of taste and improvement so highly conspicuous in many parts of Dublin should not have been extended to this fine green; a spot so well calculated for public walks, and even in its present uncouth state, and with all its *desagrémens*, so much resorted to by the public.'

We present the following object to the notice of our readers, for the sake of the useful suggestions which it calls forth from the author :

' On crossing a long and irregular bridge over the river Maig, I found myself surrounded by several venerable monastic remains ; for from this point of view four appear in sight : two of them are situated within, and two without the walls of Lord Adair's park. The first I visited, is situated near the bridge, and on the right hand side of the road. This is a most interesting ruin, and its preservation is so great, owing to the hard nature of the limestone with which it is built, that it bears quite a modern appearance. Its nave and choir are decorated with many sepulchral niches and confessional stalls : and on the northern side of the building are the cloysters, of good pointed architecture, and in a very high state of preservation. Many of the exterior decorations of the windows are lost by a superabundant luxuriance of ivy.

' And here, in defiance of vulgar prejudices, let me make two observations suggested by frequent examples that have occurred during my various perambulations of Wales, &c. So great a veneration has been generally attached to ivy, that by even hinting at a removal of it, I fear I shall be by many persons accused of sacrilege. It is not my intention however to recommend the total removal of a decoration so truly appropriated to the mouldering abbey, or embattled castle : I recommend only the judicious application of the pruning knife to those particular parts, where the luxuriance of the plant conceals from the eye the most ornamental parts of the building, such as its windows, &c. &c. In the abbey just mentioned, the eastern window is so completely hidden, that the style of its design can only be guessed at, and the whole front presents a most unpicturesque mass of the heaviest foliage. How highly would it be improved by admitting the light tracery work of the window as a counterpoise to the dingy tints of the preponderating foliage.

' My next observation is respecting the interior of the building ; in the keeping of which I dare venture to recommend neatness and attention. Some persons, I know, will immediately exclaim, " that a chaos of confused stones intermixed with briars and weeds, is much more characteristick of an abbey, and much more picturesque as to effect ; and that any degree of order, is highly out of order." Let those who have seen the effect of neatness, and felt what I did on the sudden opening of the doors of Tintern abbey in Monmouthshire, determine this orderly dispute. And let those also who have viewed the majestic entrance to Ragland castle in the same county judge, " whether the total concealment by ivy of one of the grand machicolated towers, is not much to be regretted ?" I need not apply to the artist, who by profession and experience is taught to view objects in their most advantageous point of view, nor to the man of taste, whose enlightened eye and good judgment naturally point out to him the beauties as well as the defects of nature, for their decision on this subject : for on impartial reflection, I am convinced their sentiments will be in unison with my own.

' From

'From this ruin, I entered the demesne of Lord Adair, and having crossed the river, visited another abbey, whose lofty turret renders it a conspicuous object. It resembles in a great measure the last, but is inferior as to its architectural decorations: it has several vacant sepulchral niches, and the stalls, which I have before styled confessionals, have oblong holes cut in them for the purpose of confession. The cloysters also are in a good state of preservation. I had not time to visit the ruins within the demesne adjoining the bridge. The grounds at Adair are flat, but well wooded and watered, and, like the generality of parks in Ireland, not kept with that neatness so peculiar to the seats of British subjects in England. Lord Adair is a great proprietor of ruins; having two inclosed within his park wall, and one on the immediate borders of it. What a beautiful and truly enviable appendage would they form, if judiciously curtailed of the over-luxuriant ivy that conceals their fine architectural decorations; if cleansed from the trees, weeds and briars that grow up within their naves, choirs, and cloysters; and how forcibly would the mind of the traveller be recalled to the history of past times, if the vacant sepulchral niches were filled with the recumbent effigies of monks, abbots and cross-legged knights, habited in the proper *costume* of the times. Within the village is another ruin, which I imagine to have been the castle of the Earl of Desmond.'

Of this part of his tour, Sir Richard does not report very favourably.—Arrived at Killarney, he thus observes on the district which he had passed:

'Here ended a long and tedious journey of one hundred and sixty-five Irish miles, in which, few, I fear, except the lovers of monastic antiquities, will find much amusement or gratification. Though the roads are generally good, and the inns tolerable, the country is most uniformly uninteresting. A level surface, presenting a succession of bog, arable, and pasture lands, the latter much neglected; no hedge-rows, and a total want of wood, except in the immediate vicinity of some gentleman's seat, compose the evidence on behalf of this tract of country. But whilst the feeling heart views with pity the deplorable and filthy habitations of the peasants, swarming with a numerous, but apparently healthy population, it will observe with pleasure, the improving state of the towns and cities (Tullamore, Birr, Nenagh, Limerick, Tralee) and feel a distant hope, that their increasing prosperity may ultimately tend to alleviate the miseries of the poor, and render the situation of the peasants more comfortable.'

Sir Richard's narrative had before partaken something of the nature of his subject, but it is now inspired by the bewitching scenery which surrounds him. He says:

'Now, my readers, after having conducted them over a long and dreary tract of one hundred and sixty-five Irish miles, to the borders of this far-famed lake, the *Tempe* of Ireland, will naturally expect a detailed description of its beauties; but as it is equally out of the power of the pen or pencil to do them justice, I shall not venture upon an attempt where my failure would be certain.

'It

'It is a mortifying circumstance, that many of the finest views in nature, and which at first sight make the strongest impression upon the eyes and the imagination, should defy both the powers of imitation and description. I have particularly found the failure of the pencil in *lake* scenery; and have had cause to lament that my sketches, either on the lakes of Switzerland, Westmoreland, or Killarney, could convey little more than a general idea of the outline of the mountains and surrounding scenery. In short, nature in her court dress will not be copied; whilst in her humble cottage attire, she becomes less coy, and oftentimes assumes a greater degree of consequence, than at first sight she appears to merit. What pencil can give an adequate idea of the super-eminent beauties of the mountains and rocky scenery of Glenaa and Cromiglaun? can express the transient and fleeting effects of the clouds upon them, or trace their transparent reflections in the waters beneath? What pencil can imitate the varied tints of the numerous lychens, shrubs and plants that deck the rocky boundaries of these lakes, or give a faithful representation of the fantastic forms that the rocks assume? In the name of my brother artists, I will answer, none. The powers of the pen will fail equally in description. For when I say, that the mountains Tomies, Glenaa, and Turk, are finely wooded down to the water edge; that the river abounds with every variety that rock, trees, and water can produce; that the Eagle's Nest * towers up most majestically from its banks; that the surface of the Upper Lake is broken by numerous rocky islands, and boldly indented shores; that it is backed by an almost endless range of the most picturesque mountains; that "Hills o'er hills, and Alps o'er Alps ascend!" that the rocks which bound the lakes of Mucruss and the Lower Lake, have, by continual beating of the waves, assumed the most singular and fantastic forms, added to the most harmonious colouring; and that they are covered with arbutus, heaths, and the greatest variety of plants imaginable; shall I convey any idea of this enchanting scenery? I answer, no. The collected beauties of this favoured spot are so great, so varied, and so superior to any thing I have yet seen, either in Italy, Switzerland, or England, that they can neither be delineated nor described; to be *felt* they must be *seen*.

Segnius irritant animos, demissa per aurem,
Quàm quæ sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus.

'Killarney however must not be passed over in silence; as some useful hints may be given to future tourists by one who is fully sensible of its beauties, though unequal to the task of describing them.'

He thus concludes his detail of the different views which seem to have so much charmed and delighted him:

'Strangers, on coming to Killarney, experience a great mortification in finding that the object of their attention is so far removed from the place of their residence; and that the shores of the lake are

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'* A mountain so called, from the circumstance of eagles making their nests upon it.'

not

not within the distance of a moderate walk *. Neither do I think that the regulations respecting boats, though at first sight very plausible, tend to the comfort of the tourist. Their prices are fixed; their number limited, and at the command of one individual; whereas if a general licence was given to keep boats on the lake, I am convinced that the public would be both better and more reasonably served. The true enthusiast, the lover of nature, and the artist, would wish, after having had a general introduction to the different lakes, to revisit them at his ease, and survey their manifold beauties in detail: but this, from want of small boats, he cannot do: he cannot at his pleasure ramble down to the lake, take his boat, and amuse himself for a few hours on its enchanting banks; the scheme and arrangement of each day must be preconcerted, the boat bespoken, the dinner ordered, &c. &c.; in short, difficulties and expence will ultimately exhaust the patience and the purse of even the most sanguine admirer of nature †.

'I have seen no spot more adapted for the school of a landscape artist than Killarney; and where he may study all the component parts of a fine picture with greater advantage. The rocks that bound the shores of Mucruss and the Lower Lake, with their harmonious tints, and luxuriant decoration of foliage, stand unrivalled, both in form and colouring. The character of the mountains is as grand and varied, as the lakes in which they reflect their rugged summits; and the inconstant state of the climate subjects each to the most sudden changes, and produces the most admirable effects of light and shade imaginable. Here, in short, in this western *Tempe*, the artist will find every thing he can possibly wish: the beautiful in the Lower, and Mucruss Lakes; the sublime in the Upper Lake; variety in the river that connects the lakes, and the savage in the mountains that form the Pass of Dunloe.'

Of Cork and its noble harbour, Sir Richard in course takes notice; and he informs us that

'The whole morning of the 24th of July was spent on board Mr.

'* The shores to the north-east of Ross castle, are flat and boggy; those to the south-east of it, command a beautiful view of Glenaa and Tomies in front; but being occupied by the villas of Mr. Herbert of Cahirnane, and of Mrs. Delaney, the public are deprived of those walks and enjoyments that the banks of this lake would otherwise afford.'

'† The plan mentioned by Mr. Arthur Young, in his Irish Tour, (vol. i. p. 459.) is admirable; and I am surprised it never has been adopted. He there recommends the building of a spacious hotel on the immediate shores of the lake, which should furnish to travellers every accommodation and comfort of an English Spa within doors, and all the necessaries for amusement without. This intelligent and observing author has devoted several pages to the description of Killarney and its environs, which are well worth the perusal of those who intend to visit them.'

Newenham's hooker * ; and a more delightful, animated and novel water excursion was never experienced. The gentlemen residing near the harbour, have established a club ; the members of which meet every Thursday during summer at a certain rendezvous. Each vessel bears the Admiral's flag in its turn, and on that day all the other vessels are subservient to the orders issued by its commander. Those orders are given by hoisting flags of different colours, and of which they have a great variety. Our host, Mr. Newenham, being Admiral for the day, our amusement and interest were much increased, by seeing minutely the mode of proceeding. Near the mouth of the harbour† a signal was given to chase, as far as Poor Head ; and another to return to Monkstown, on which occasion every vessel endeavoured to make the best of its way to the destined goal. The numerous vessels manœuvering, tacking, and vying with each other, with their sails illuminated by a bright sunshine, formed the most picturesque scene imaginable, and which was much heightened by a stately frigate sailing out of the harbour in the midst of the smaller craft, and by the dismasted wrecks of two merchantment, that had narrowly escaped the vengeance of a dreadful storm, and were seeking shelter in this noble port.. This aquatic expedition, during which we made the circuit of a large part of the harbour, presented the different islands and shores to great advantage. The town of Cove is increasing rapidly in buildings and commerce, and from the superior advantages it possesses over Cork, bids fairly, in the course of time, to supplant it ; for here the merchant can unload his cargo in the sight of his own storehouses ; whereas all heavy vessels destined for Cork, are now obliged to unship them at the village of Passage ; the River Lee not affording a sufficient depth of water to convey them to Cork.'

A general observation closes Sir Richard's interesting account of an aquatic excursion, which served to give variety to his tour :

' Though the scenery on the Blackwater, cannot by any means be compared with that on many of our rivers and æstuaries in England : either with the Wye, in Herefordshire, with the Dart in Devonshire, or the Tamar in Cornwall ; I am inclined to think it cannot for the long continuance of twenty miles be surpassed, or even rivalled, by any other stream in Ireland. It affords some good subjects for the portfolio, of which the most striking and best adapted to the pencil, are those at Balinatray, Strankally, and Drumana ; but all must yield to Lismore.'

' * The vessels so called are of a very particular construction : they sail well, are very safe, and excellently well adapted to water excursions.'

' † This noble harbour, in which the whole British navy could ride at anchor in safety, is about a mile wide at its opening, between *Ram Point* and *Dog's Nose*. *Poor Head* and *Cork Head* form two more distant boundaries of it. A survey of the whole harbour was made in 1801, by Admiral *Knight*, and is sold at *Cork*.'

The

The source of this river lies near the isle of Kerry, and it enters the sea in the county of Waterford.

At New Grange, near Slane, the author visited the celebrated subterraneous temple of that place, of which he gives this description;

'Its outward appearance is that of a large earthern *tumulus*, similar to those we see so frequently on the chalky hills of Wiltshire and Dorsetshire, but not so neat and uniform in its outline; it differs, however, from them, in having been surrounded by huge unshapen stones, erected in the same state as they were taken from their native quarry; some of which still remain in their original positions. It differs also from the generality of them in the West of England, by containing under its verdant surface, a subterraneous temple, constructed of the rudest materials, and certainly of the highest antiquity. Dr. Ledwich informs us, "that it was discovered in the year 1699, by a Mr. Campbell, who resided in the village of New Grange; who, observing stones under the green sod, carried much of them away, and at length arrived at a broad flat stone that covered the mouth of the gallery."

'Through this entrance, we ventured into the artificial cavern, having previously sent in a labouring man with candles. For a short space, the entrance is so low, that we could only gain admittance by crawling along on our bellies; but after passing under one of the side stones, that has fallen across the passage, the avenue becomes sufficiently high to admit a person at his full height. The area of this building resembles the upper part of a cross, as the avenue does the stem; there are three recesses, one facing the avenue or gallery, and one on each side; in the one to the right is a large stone vase, which antiquaries have denominated a *rock bason*: it is mentioned as having its sides fluted, but I could not distinguish any workmanship of the kind; I observed however a singularity in it, which is so evident, that I am surprised it did not arrest the attention of former travellers and writers. Within the excavated part of this large bason, are two circular cavities, along-side of each other, about the size of a child's head: several also of the rude stones composing this recess, are decorated with a variety of devices, circular, zigzag, and diamond-shaped: some of this latter pattern seem to bear the marks of superior workmanship; the squares being indented. Many of the stones on each side of the *adit* have similar rude marks upon them, and one of them has spiral zigzags. Some antiquaries have carried their zeal so far, as to discover (in idea) *letters* on the stones, which they have attributed to the Phœnicians; whilst others have denominated them Ogham characters: those *marks* which I observed on many of the stones, bore very little resemblance to *letters*, and a great similarity to the ornaments I have found on the ancient British urns discovered under our *tumuli* in Wiltshire. I am inclined therefore to attribute this singular temple to some of the Celtic, or Belgic tribes, who poured in upon us from the Continent of Gaul, and peopled England, together with Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

'In the opposite recess, there are the fragments of another rock bason; and some authors assert, (though, I believe, without much

foundation), that the centre recess contained a third vase. The construction of the dome demands notice. The avenue, or gallery, leading to the area, is formed by large upright stones, pitched perpendicularly in a row on each side, and supporting the flat stones that form the roof; this covering rises gradually till it reaches the dome, which is not (like our modern cupolas) formed by key stones converging to a centre, but after the manner of our staircases, each long stone projecting a little beyond the end of that immediately beneath it; and a large flat stone making the cove of the centre. The tallest of the stones forming the *adit* to the *sacellum*, as represented in the plate, which serves as a frontispiece to my work, is seven feet six inches in height: its companion on the opposite side, is about seven feet: the outward surface of the rock bason, is about three feet six long, and three feet two inches deep.'—

'This tract of country seems to be particularly rich in similar antiquities; there is a cave in Lord Netterville's park; another lately discovered in Mrs. M'Gwire's demesne, and I passed, in my way to the New Grange, a large raised mound, which bore a great resemblance to its elevated neighbour. I also observed, in a field adjoining the New Grange, a smaller sepulchral *tumulus*, that might easily be opened; and another raised earthen work nearer Lord Netterville's park. I had cause to regret, that so little time could be devoted to the examination of this curious region, which abounds so much in works of ancient times.'

We gratify our best feelings in giving place to the following glowing apostrophe, which repeated instances of the brutal negligence here censured finally calls from the author;

'I should ill perform the duty I owe to my own feelings as a man of humanity, and as a citizen of that community which has so lately united each nation under the general appellation of Briton, were I to quit this subject, without noticing more strongly than I have hitherto done during my Journal, the disgraceful state in which several of the cemeteries are suffered to remain.

'From the earliest ages, and even by the most savage nations, the greatest respect has ever been paid to the bones and ashes of the deceased; but in Ireland, their sad relicks, after a short abode in the clay-cold mansion, are again restored to light, and the floors of the once hallowed abbey, become white with their thickly mouldering fragments

'I address myself to you, ye reverend guardians of the church, and of the *manes* of your fellow citizens. To you it belongs to rescue them from their present exposed and disgraceful situation. Examine either personally, or by your rural deans, (if such exist) the state of your churches and cemeteries. They are a disgrace to your country; a disgrace to humanity. A field of battle only can equal the disgusting and desolated appearance which this Irish Golgotha presents to the astonished stranger: "Your task is easy, and the burden will be light." A charnel house of simple architecture, corresponding with that of the adjoining ruins, and placed under some aged yew tree, with the plain and impressive motto of FUIMUS

over

over its portal, would add both awe and interest to the hallowed scenery. Who has not beheld with such-like sentiments the ossuary at Morat, in Switzerland, where the mouldering remains of the Burgundian army record to future ages the triumph of the brave Helvetians? and who does not view even the representation of the skull chamber in Mr. Barrow's description of Cochin China, with a certain degree of awe and reverence?"

The few reflections which the author makes on the economics and statistics of Ireland, and which conclude his work, reflect as much credit on his heart, as those which comprize the bulk of the volume confer on his zeal and taste. The obligations of Ireland to the bounty of nature, Sir Richard agrees with other writers in admitting: but the evils of mal-administration he seems strongly to feel and lament, while the picture which he draws of its inhabitants is highly flattering. It appears that at the time in which he penned the bulk of the ensuing extract, he anticipated a speedy amelioration of their condition; for he observes that

'From the patriotic zeal of the noble Duke [Bedford] who at this time presides over the kingdom, much encouragement and improvement may be expected in the agricultural department. His serious attention has been also given to matters of still greater importance; to the establishment of schools, by which the benefits of a better education may be extended to the lower classes of his Majesty's subjects.

'From another distinguished subject, (Sir John Newport) the country may expect to derive very important advantages. Many useful acts have been brought forward by him during the present session of Parliament, amongst which none will prove more gratifying to the Stranger than the abolition of the unnecessary offices at the customs, and the removal of their vexatious appendages.

"To relieve the poor from every burden, of which possibility admitted the exemption; to restrain the oppressive exactions of petty authorities; to economize the public expenditure; to suppress places which had emolument and a name, but no utility; to regulate the revenue laws in such a manner, as at once to secure the independence of the fair trader, and the interest of the crown; to punish the secret, but successful eluder of national imports; to devise the means of diffusive improvement, and to give force and efficacy to such institutions as favoured this valuable purpose; to allay the irritations which are the offspring of religious bigotry, or of party zeal; to establish an harmonious unanimity, where discord had so long and so fatally prevailed: these, and such as these, *were* the worthy and magnificent designs which occupied all his meditations and all his toils."

Extract from the Waterford Chronicle.

'Such *were* [he adds] the happy rays that began to illuminate the uncivilized regions of *Hibernia:* and such *was* the pleasing prospect which the well-wishers for its prosperity had in view before them The cloud of party has on a sudden overshadowed them, and whether they will

will emerge with lustre, and present the same flattering prospect, time only can ascertain.'

Did, then, all the confusion and distraction which we have witnessed serve only to suspend actual good, and to render its return dubious? Jo.

ART. X. *Memoirs of Maria Antoinetta, Archduchess of Austria, Queen of France and Navarre;* including several important Periods of the French Revolution, from its Origin to the 16th of October 1793, the Day of her Majesty's Martyrdom; with a Narrative of the Trial and Martyrdom of Madame Elizabeth; the poisoning of Louis XVII. in the Temple; the Liberation of Madame Royale, Daughter of Louis XVI., and various subsequent Events. By Joseph Weber, Foster Brother of the Unfortunate Queen, formerly employed in the Department of the Finances of France, and now Pensioner of his Royal Highness the Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen. Translated from the French, by R. C. Dallas, Esq. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 472, sewed. Sold by the Author, 27, Leicester Square.

VERY different accounts have been given of the conduct and character of the exalted but unfortunate subject of the present work. Some have charged her with gross and open profligacy; others have been contented to impute to her those irregularities only which were but too common among the higher ranks in France; while a few have contended for the correctness of her private deportment. In this class stands the writer now before us; who, it cannot be disputed, had means of information not inferior to those of any of her panegyrists, or of her accusers. A great part of his life was spent near her person; he appears to have been honoured in a considerable degree with her regard, and to have mixed in her private societies; and though he writes under a strong bias, and his enthusiasm seems to acknowlege no bounds, his relations have a simplicity and a consistency which speak strongly in favour of their authenticity. In his pages, the actions of the ill fated Princess prove her to have been compassionate, placable, beneficent, and generous; an affectionate wife, a tender parent, and a gentle mistress. The attachment shewn to the Queen in adverse fortune, by those who had shared her protection in her prosperous days, is urged by the author as a proof of the fidelity of the picture which he has drawn of her; and in support also of this representation, he addresses to his readers the following interrogatory:

'She was (he tells us) the bosom friend of that Princess so virtuous, mild, and pure, who seemed to be an angel, stationed by Heaven

Heaven amidst the Royal Family to console them in the hours of affliction; the bosom friend of Madame Elizabeth, in whose face were united the Queen's beauty with the benignant features of her august brother. That Princess, of unblemished morals and exemplary piety, that celestial mind, was attached with the tenderest affection to MARIA-ANTOINETTA: will it ever in future be believed, that this adorable woman could have vowed and preserved the unalterable attachment she manifested for the Queen, had there been the slightest foundation for the least of the charges that have been advanced or insinuated by her enemies against her conduct? The constant friendship of Madame Elizabeth would be an answer to every calumny, a refutation of every libel, were it necessary to answer or refute them.'

The author's account of the origin and progress of the revolution is given in a neat and luminous manner, but we discover in it no new facts. We shall therefore pass it over, and confine our attention to a few of the incidents which are stated as occurring in the prosperous days of the Queen, and which preserve some of her characteristic traits.

In the subsequent extract, we are informed of the interest which her departure excited in her native city, and of the enthusiastic welcome with which she was received in her adopted country:

'The Archduchess left Vienna. The people all flew to the way she was to take; and at first their grief was dumb. She appeared; and was seen, her cheeks bathed in tears, lying back in her coach, covering her eyes sometimes with her handkerchief and sometimes with her hands; now and then putting her head out of the carriage, to take another look at the palace of her ancestors, which she was never more to enter; and making signs of regret and acknowledgment to the truly worthy people, who were pressing in crowds to bid her adieu. They now no longer answered with silent tears; the most piercing cries arose from every quarter. Men and women expressed their grief alike. The avenues as well as the streets of Vienna resounded with their cries; nor did they return home till the last horseman in her suite was out of sight, and then but to bewail with their families the common loss. The melancholy impression lasted for a long time; and long did the capital of Austria wear the appearance of a general mourning, instead of the hilarity of a marriage. Alas! already was the day marked in futurity when that mourning was to be a dreadful one!

'Every tribute of respect, all the charms of hope, all the intoxication of public love, attended the entrance of the daughter of MARIA-THERESA, the young and beautiful Dauphiness of France, on the French territory. On her way, she every where captivated all hearts. Nature, as was said by Madame Polignac, had formed MARIA-ANTOINNETTA for a throne. A majestic stature, a noble beauty, and a manner of holding her head difficult to describe, inspired respect. Her features, without being regular, possessed,

what was far superior, infinite grace. The clearness of her complexion set them off, and gave a dazzling lustre to her countenance. The most engaging manners still heightened all these charms; and, in the bloom of youth, the elegance and vivacity of her motions, with the frank and lively expression of a good heart and native wit, were particularly calculated to delight the French of those days. She charmed her husband, she charmed the King and all his family, the court and the town, the high and the low, each sex, all ranks, and all ages.'

The ensuing anecdote indicates elevation of mind, as well as a forgiving temper:

'The Marquis of Pontécoulant, Major of the Life-guards, had been so unfortunate in the lifetime of Louis XV. as to incur the displeasure of the Dauphiness. The cause was not a very serious one; but the Princess, resenting it with the hasty vivacity of youth, declared *she would never forget it.* The Marquis, who had not himself forgotten this declaration, no sooner beheld MARIA-ANTOINETTA seated on the throne, than he conceived himself likely to meet with some disgrace, and resolved to prevent it; for which purpose, he directly gave in his resignation to the Prince of Beauveau, Captain of the Guards, at the same time frankly giving him his reasons for so painful a procedure on his part, adding, that he would greatly regret being under the necessity of quitting the King's service; but if His Majesty would be pleased to employ him in some other way, he should be very happy. The Captain of the Guards perceiving the distress of the Major's mind, and well acquainted with his merits, took upon himself to present his resignation to the King; but, previously waiting upon the Queen, he represented to her the affliction with which the Marquis of Pontécoulant was overwhelmed, recounted the usefulness and number of his former services, and then concluded by asking what orders she would be pleased to give, with respect to what was to be done with the resignation. The sight alone of the Prince of Beauveau was sufficient to excite generosity in the heart of another, and that of MARIA-ANTOINETTA already fostered the principle in its fullest influence. "The Queen," said she, "remembers not the quarrels of the Dauphiness, and I now request that the Marquis of Pontécoulant will no longer recollect what I have blotted from my memory."

Another incident shews with what favour she was regarded at the time by the fickle Parisians;

'The Queen came to Paris to see the Play of Iphigenia in Aulis. The Emperor sate next to her at the theatre, and the Royal Family filled up the box. The audience received them with the liveliest testimonies of joy; but all this was trifling when compared to the transport which was excited by an incident in the piece. At that part in which the young and beauteous Iphigenia passes in triumph through the midst of the Grecian camp, a chorus of Thessalians exclaims,

Que d'attraits! Que de Majesté!
Que de grâces! Que de beauté!
Chantons, célébrons notre reine.

Behold her beauteous and majestic form!
What grace divine our youthful Queen displays!
Loud swell the strain to celebrate her praise.

Scarcely were these words uttered when the allusion struck the minds of all. Not only were the eyes of the whole theatre turned towards the young and beautiful MARIA-ANTOINETTA; not only was every applauding hand directed towards the place she occupied, but even the chorus was encored, a thing unheard of in this drama. The actor, who performed the part of Achilles, overjoyed at seeing himself all at once made the organ of the sentiments of the French people, pointed directly to the Queen's box, repeating to his Thessalian followers,

Chantez, celebrez notre Reine.

The people in every part of the theatre stood up, and joined their voices with those of the actors. The Queen, who was standing, leaned upon her brother, entirely overcome by her sensibility, and the grateful pleasure that filled her breast; she endeavoured to withdraw herself from the homage so eagerly pressed upon her; and, although amid the confused sensations that rushed in upon her at once, she was incapable of giving expression to her feelings, she nevertheless succeeded most effectually in manifesting them to all, for not a gesture escaped her, not a tear fell from her eye, that did not contribute to augment the enthusiastic ardour with which her every motion was attended to. Her Brother, and the Princes of the Royal Family, bowed by turns to the audience, acknowledging the justice of their allusion; and then, turning to the Queen, congratulated her upon the splendid triumph she enjoyed, professing themselves delighted at the idea of adding to it by their presence. Along the passages, upon the stairs, and to the very door of the theatre, was this chorus repeated; every place rang with those favourite words,

Chantons, célébrons notre Reine.

What a moment must this have been for MARIA-ANTOINETTA! How deep must she have drunk of the cup of joy!'

A domestic scene next presents itself:

'Three hours after the birth of the Dauphin, three hundred couriers set off from Versailles, to bear the news to every part of the kingdom, and to all foreign courts. The capital was very soon informed of it. Scarcely was the cry of *a Dauphin, a Dauphin,* heard in the palace, ere it echoed through Versailles, made its way along the public roads, and resounded in every corner of Paris.

'The shops were instantly shut, every one rushed to the places of worship to offer up thanksgivings to Heaven; dances were formed in the open streets; alms were delivered to the poor; and prisoners were set at liberty. The King, transported with joy, gave the most ingenuous proofs of it to the Court and all his people. Like Henry IV.

he appeared at the windows with the child in his arms, shewing him to the crowd that flocked in repeated multitudes to shower their blessings upon it and the father. He received the deputations of sovereign courts, of municipalities, and of all the trading companies*. High and low, rich and poor, were all alike permitted to draw near to him with their felicitations; his happiness was the happiness of all, and the joy which he witnessed in others increased his own.

'The Queen, in the mean while, had not lost sight of what might be termed her favourite deed of piety, she had already sent to give freedom to an hundred women, who were confined in consequence of not being able to defray the expense of nursing their children; she yet, however, knew only that she was a mother, but was ignorant whether of a prince or princess. The King, with his wonted tender solicitude, had requested her to consent to remain ignorant of her infant's sex till the second day, fearful that joy or disappointment might have an equally bad effect upon her constitution; but, on the other hand the continuance of her anxiety might also be dangerous. At length, after having himself struggled for several hours with the secret, he found that he could no longer withstand the entreaties of the beloved of his soul. Seated on the bed near the Queen, he listened while she declared to him with the most enchanting complacency of manner, that if indeed her wish had always been for a son, it was a wish inspired by her anxiety for the commonweal, and the satisfaction of the King. So resigned did she appear, so determined to receive without a murmur whatever Heaven had given, and so perfectly convinced was she that it was a daughter, from the mysterious silence preserved, that the King could no longer contain himself; he rose, and called aloud to the attendants, *to bring M. the Dauphin to the Queen*. At these words the grateful—shall I say the happy? yes, that moment happiness was her's; the happy MARIA-ANTOINETTA raised herself up in the bed, and spread out her arms towards the King, when this august pair, locked in each other's embrace, mingled tears so full of rapture, that even the Dauphin was allowed to remain beside them for some minutes without being perceived.'

Another anecdote shews that this fascinating Princess must have been eminently amiable and charitable:

'* The King was very fond of mechanics, and his usual work of recreation was making of locks. The company of locksmiths, belonging to Versailles, came upon this happy occasion to pay their dutiful congratulations, presenting him at the same time with a production of their trade, which they denominated a *master-piece*: it was a secret lock, the King desired that he might be left to find out the secret himself. This he did; but at the instant that he touched the spring, there darted, from the centre of the lock, a *Dauphin* admirably worked in steel. The King was much delighted, and with a full heart declared *that the ingenious present of these worthy people gratified him much*, and with his own hands he made them a handsome remuneration.'

'It happened when Louis XV. was hunting in the forest of Fontainbleau, that a furious stag, having been several times wounded, leaped over the low wall of a little garden at Achere, and springing on a peasant, who was digging on the ground, thrust his horns into his bowels. Some of the neighbours, who saw the sad accident, finding that the poor gardener was expiring, ran to tell his wife, who was working in the fields, at the distance of a mile and a half from the place. The unhappy woman rent the air with her cries, and gave every mark of the most violent despair. The Dauphiness, who was passing in a chariot at the time, not far from the spot, in her way to the rendezvous of the chace, hearing the cries of the disconsolate woman, stopped her carriage, and darting from it, flew across the vineyard, to the assistance of the sufferer, whom she found in fits. She made her smell some hartshorn, and in the meanwhile enquired into the nature of the accident that had just happened; the poor woman, on recovering, found herself in the arms of the Dauphiness, who was weeping. This young Princess endeavoured, by every tender consideration which her heart could suggest, to console this victim of calamity, and gave her all the money her purse contained. When the Dauphin, the Count and Countess of Provence came up, they mingled their sympathy with her's, and followed the example of her bounty. She then ordered her carriage to the spot, and obliged the miserable woman to get in, with her child, and two other villagers; at the same time giving strict charge to one of her servants to carry the wife with all speed to her husband, and the poor child to its father, and then to return as quick as possible to give her an account of the state in which the wounded man was. Whilst the Dauphiness was waiting in all the agony of suspence for the footman's return, the King joined her, and, hearing what had happened, exclaimed—"What a shocking thing it would be if this "man should die; how shall we ever console his wife and child?"—"How otherwise, my dear father," replied the Dauphiness, "than "by striving to relieve their distress? for shall we not, by that means "in some degree lessen the bitterness of their lot!" The King immediately promised to give them a pension, and ordered his first surgeon to visit the wounded man every day, who, by such care, was at length restored to his family, to bless his illustrious benefactress.'

In the following passage, a claim is urged in favour of the Queen, to which her right, we believe, is not generally known:

'France prides herself at present, and justly, on possessing the first Lyrical Theatre of Europe. The master-pieces of music with which the collection of the Royal Academy of Paris has been enriched for fifteen years past, secure it an incontestable superiority over those of all other capitals. This justice is paid to it by all travellers and people of taste. It would be very difficult, not to say impossible, to estimate the sums which this dramatic pre-eminence has drawn to Paris, and scattered over France, by the concourse of opulent strangers which it has contributed to bring or detain in the country. Now, it is a fact which every one must acknowledge, that the music of France, before the arrival of MARIA-ANTOINETTA, was semi-barba-

rous. This science was still in its infancy, while all the others had passed the period of their maturity. As soon as MARIA-ANTOINETTA had been at the Opera, she resolved to improve the national taste. To her it is, to her enlightened love of the Arts, that France is indebted for the revolution which was then effected in music. She it was who brought from Vienna to Paris, who encouraged, who protected against all cabals, the Chevalier Gluck, who had had the honour to give her lessons, and who was the first that could place the dagger of Melpomene in the hands of Euterpe. He gave to the serious Opera the true tone of Tragedy. Boileau said of the Opera of his day:

Jusqu'à *je vous hais*, tout s'y dit tendrement.
And e'en *I hate you* glides a tender strain.

A critique which, with very few exceptions, was still applicable to the Opera, as MARIA-ANTOINETTA found it at her arrival in France. In a few years it felt her happy influence; and could Boileau have revisited the world, he would have found that my illustrious countryman, Gluck, as poetical in his music as Corneille and Racine were harmonious in their poetry, had in his Operas put in practice the precepts of the Legislator of Parnassus, and that at his touch, *each passion spoke its proper language.* MARIA-ANTOINETTA not only invited to Paris the genius who was the boast of Vienna, but also those excellent composers whose works were the delight of Italy. Piccini and Sacchini were desired and encouraged by MARIA-ANTOINETTA to come and and enrich the French stage. In this they succeeded, by following the path marked out by the German Orpheus; and if the competition of these three celebrated masters occasioned some warm disputes among the French, it at least proved useful to the art. In fact, it is to that fermentation, and to the discussions it produced, that the world are indebted for those master-pieces *Dido*, *Œdipus*, *Armida*, and *Alcestes*, which will remain for ever the glory of the Lyrical Theatre of Paris, and be lasting models for future artists. This is one of the permanent benefits which France has derived from MARIA-ANTOINETTA. As long as the French are sensible of the effects of harmony, of the charms of melody; as long as a taste for the beautiful prevails in France, it will be as impossible to forget the fifteen years reign of MARIA-ANTOINETTA, as it is now to forget the glorious age of Louis XIV.; and perhaps the favourites of Euterpe, in speaking of the period when *that magic spectacle in which poetry, dancing, and music combine a hundred pleasures in one,* attained its greatest glory, will one day call it *the Age of* MARIA-ANTOINETTA.'

Happy had it been for this high personage, for France, and for the world, had she confined herself to the cares, occupations, and scenes with which and in which she is here represented as busied: but unfortunately she was induced to interfere in public affairs, for which province she was totally unfit. This fact clearly appears from the present work, though it is but slightly touched.—The unpopularity of her later years is ascribed to the machinations of the Duke of Orleans, and

to a most unfounded suspicion that she sacrificed the interest of France from affection to her brother. The hostility of the Duke is attributed to the Queen having discountenanced his profligate manners by refusing him admission to her parties at Versailles and Trianon, '*in which gaiety and sprightliness never intrenched on the forms of decency and propriety,*' and to the heterodox political principles which he had imbibed in his education, and in his visits to England.

Mr. Weber alludes to the famous affair of the necklace, without elucidating it: and though he confidently asserts the innocence of the Queen, and her total ignorance of the transaction, he omits to state the grounds on which his opinion is formed. He is more successful in vindicating his royal Mistress from the charge of betraying the interests of her country to family considerations. Indeed, of this accusation, so vehemently urged and so frequently reiterated by the demagogues of the revolution, we have never seen any thing approaching to proof; and it is in the highest degree improbable.

The parts of this work which relate to the Queen are very interesting; and the narrative of political affairs is only irksome because it has been so often told. As to the real *truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth,* respecting the ill-fated Maria Antoinetta, we suppose that we are not yet to obtain it. For us it is in course impossible to pronounce it, or to gain it even by comparing different accounts. We have readily inserted a number of those statements which are made in this volume by one who *must know something,* but perhaps *will not tell all;* and these relations, as we have already observed, and as our quotations prove, are highly honorable to the object of the writer's adoration. It is, however, obvious to remark that the admission of some virtues implies not the exclusion of all crimes; and that those feelings of the heart, which are here attributed to the late Queen of France, are not incompatible with that indulgence of the passions which has by others been ascribed to her. M. Weber's devotion has induced him to delineate a *Goddess,* and the malignity of political enemies has excited them to paint a *Dæmon.* The truth, as in other cases, most probably lies between the two extremes:

"*The web of our life is of a mingled yarn, good and ill together: our virtues would be proud, if our faults whipped them not; and our crimes would despair, if they were not cherished by our virtues.*"

SHAKSPEARE, *All's well that Ends well.*

ART. XI. *Dernieres Années du Regne & de la Vie*, &c. i. e. The latter Years of the Reign and Life of Louis XVI. By Francis Hue, one of the Gentlemen of the King's Bed Chamber; and appointed by this Prince, after the Tenth of August, to the Honor of attending his Person and the Royal Family. 8vo. pp. 542. 10s. 6d. Boards. De Boffe, &c. 1806. *

THE situation of M. Hue near the person of the late unfortunate French monarch, the selection of him by his royal master to attend him during his imprisonment in the Temple, the flattering though at the time highly dangerous distinction of being mentioned by him in his will, the farther honour of accompanying the Princess Royal at her own request on her departure from France, and the consideration which he enjoys in the court of Louis XVIII., strongly draw attention to the tragic but thread-bare tale which he undertakes to relate. Frequently as it has been repeated, the reader will here find incidents and circumstances, which place some of the particulars of it in a new and interesting light.

In his preface, M. Hue thus draws a picture of the situation of revolutionary France:

'The French people, so long the model for other nations, of whom one part was guilty, and the other plunged in the deepest consternation and terror, submitted to the yoke of the most vile tyrants. The greatness of their calamities was such as to deprive them of the faculty of feeling them; while the monsters who ruled were obliged, in order to support their accusation against kings, to go back to remote periods; and they exercised a tyranny more barbarous than any of which the annals of men make mention, and which pervaded France from one end to the other. Blinded or corrupted, the frantic multitude would have blood, always blood, and it intoxicated itself with the most pure blood of the country. Ferocious cries, the songs of cannibals, and hymns of death, resounded from all parts in honour of liberty. O God! What liberty!'

The author tells us that his work is a faithful narrative of facts, most of which have been so differently related as to leave the public in great uncertainty with regard to them;—facts which principally relate to the position, more or less difficult, in which the monarch found himself at the several periods of the Revolution.

If proofs of the good intentions and love of his people, which were possessed by Louis XVI., had been wanting, they would be sufficiently found in these pages; the mild and amiable virtues of Madame Elizabeth also here shine with fresh lustre; while traits are sketched which exhibit the Princess Royal and

* Of this work, also, a translation by Mr. Dallas is published.

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the Dauphin in a very advantageous light. The Queen herself is also ingeniously defended, and claims to our esteem and regard are preferred on her behalf.

In a conversation between the king and M. de Malesherbes, the former is introduced as thus speaking of his royal consort:

"If the French knew her value, if they knew to what degree of perfection our misfortunes have elevated her, they would reverence and love her; but before our calamities came upon us, her enemies and mine had the art of disseminating calumnies among the people, and of changing that affection which she so long enjoyed into hatred. You saw her on her first arrival at Court; she had scarcely advanced beyond her childhood; my grandmother and mother were no more; my aunts only remained, but their claims on her were different. Placed in the midst of a brilliant Court, near a woman whom intrigue retained there, the Dauphiness had before her the example of her pride and extravagance. What opinion must she have been led to form of her own power and rights, in whom so many claims united!

"To live in the society of the favourite was not proper for the Dauphiness. Thrown therefore into a sort of privacy, she adopted a manner of life which was free from etiquette and restraint; and this habit followed her to the throne. This plan, so new at Court, was too much adapted to my taste to meet with opposition from me. I was not yet aware how dangerous it is for monarchs to be seen too nearly. Familiarity prevents the respect which should belong to those who rule. At first, the public applauded this departure from antient usages, and afterward held it up as a crime.

"The Queen was desirous of having friends; the Princess de Lamballe was the person whom she most distinguished; and her conduct towards us in our misfortunes ratified the choice. The Countess Julia de Polignac also won her royal Mistress's favour, and became her friend. At the request of the Queen, I bestowed benefits on this lady's family which excited envy, and the Queen and her friend became objects of the most unfounded censure. They also imputed to her the love which she bore her brother as a crime, and asserted that she conveyed millions of money to him. They only calumniate her in order to render the people prepared to see her distruction. Her death is resolved. If they suffer her to live, they fear that she would find the means of avenging me. Unfortunate Princess! My marriage promised her a throne; to-day what a prospect is hers!" In pronouncing these words, the good monarch could not refrain from tears.'

Another conversation is also related, in which the Queen spoke her sentiments to the author, on occasion of the advances which the coalesced armies were making into the territories of France:

"Every thing convinces me," said she, "that I am to be separated from the King: but I hope that you will remain with him. Have you reflected what sentiments you ought, as a good Frenchman, always to express to him; sentiments which I have uniformly professed in his presence? State, when you have an opportunity of speaking

speaking to him alone, that impatience under our present chains ought never to extort from him any concession unworthy of his glory. There must be no dismemberment of France. Let no consideration mislead him in this matter. Let him not be terrified either on my sister's account or mine. Tell him that we shall prefer the longest confinement to having the smallest fortress given up. If Divine providence ever restores us to liberty, the king is determined for a short time to establish his residence at Strasburgh. This city may be tempted to renew its relations with Germany: but we must prevent it, and secure its fidelity."

'The tone,' adds M. Hue, 'with which her Majesty expressed herself, satisfied me that, in conjunctures of this kind, the daughter of Maria Theresa, the sister of Joseph and of Leopold, and the Aunt of Francis II., was now only the wife of the king of France, and the mother of the heir to the throne.'

We do not suspect the integrity of any man who was distinguished as M. Hue has been by Louis XVI.: but this conversation is so entirely calculated to remove certain imputations against the Queen, that it looks very much as if it were imagined *après coup*; and as in religion even good men have had recourse to pious frauds, why may not the same practice be adopted in politics?

The zeal and attachment of M. Hue are conspicuous in the solicitation which he made to the Committee of General Safety, for permission to share in the imprisonment of the Dauphin, in order to undertake the care of him: but the request was rejected, under the pretence that this office was vested in the commissaries of the Temple. On the eighth of June 1795, Louis XVII. died, after a lingering and very painful illness. He was buried in a church-yard in the suburb of St. Antony; and only a few persons followed the procession. M. Hue states that his researches falsify the report that this young prince died by means of poison:

'It was from no feeling of humanity, however, (he adds) that this crime was not committed; indeed it would have been less heinous than the detestable plan which was adopted, that of bringing on his destruction by less offensive, but equally barbarous and effectual methods. The monsters who then tyrannized over France, and who were not ignorant of the lively interest excited by the lot of the young prince, were too good calculators to incur the unpopularity of cutting short his days by violent means. The plan which they adopted was, to annihilate his moral faculties by various inhuman devices, and by keeping him in constant terror. "If it should happen," said they, "that in some popular ferment the Parisians should betake themselves to the Temple in order to proclaim Louis XVII. king, we will shew them a little imbecile stupid figure, the sight of which will force them to renounce their project."—

'This prince (continues M. Hue,) had received from nature an exquisite exterior form, a mind far beyond his years, and the germs of

of the greatest qualities. Young as he was, his repartees were remarked for their pointed and neat turns. One day, as he was preparing his lesson, he began to whistle; and he was reproved. The Queen entered, and joined in the reprimand. "Mama," replied he, "I repeated my lesson so ill that I whistled in derision of myself." Being one day in the garden of Bagatelle, carried away by his vivacity, he threw himself across a bush of roses. "Monseigneur," said I, while stopping him, "one of these thorns might deprive you of an eye, or wound your face;" he turned round, and looking at me with a lofty and firm air, he said, "thorny paths lead to glory."—The Abbé Davaux was his preceptor; and he had several opportunities of witnessing the great promise and sensibility of his pupil. The royal infant one day recalling to his mind a lesson in history, to which he had just been attending, under pretence of looking for something which he had lost, he lighted a lantern; and, while seeming to search for the missing object, he suddenly turned round, and taking the Abbé by the hand he said, "I am more fortunate than Diogenes, I have found a man."—After some absence from attendance on his lessons, the Abbé reminding him that they had left off with the three degrees of comparison, the positive, the comparative, and the superlative, and adding, "but you have forgotten them;"—"You mistake," replied the Dauphin; "and I will prove it to you: it is the positive when I say, *my Abbé is a good Abbé;* it is the comparative when I say, *my Abbé is better than other Abbés;* it is the superlative, (he added, while fixing his eyes on the Queen,) when I say, *Mama is the most tender and most kind of all Mamas.*" The illustrious parent took the child in her arms, pressed him to her bosom, and was unable to conceal her tears.'

It appears that M. Hue and the excellent Malesherbes were shut up in the same prison, and that their mutual regard for their late master led to intimacy and reciprocal confidence. The relations of the incomparable magistrate and statesman, which are here inserted, powerfully arrest attention, and add very materially to the interest of the volume.

M. de Malesherbes ascribes the indecision of the king to his over anxiety to make the better choice for the public interest.

"What a responsibility!" would he often say: "Each of my actions affects the lot of twenty-five millions of men!"—The king, (continued M. de M.) was highly gratified by my disdain for those grimaces which are regarded as accomplishments of behaviour, and which are often a mere cover for hollowness. "M. de Malesherbes," said he, "You and I expose ourselves to the ridicule of adhering to the manners of old times: but is not this ridicule preferable to the affected fine airs of the present day? This varnish frequently conceals the basest qualities."—The king was not ignorant of the pleasantries in which the youthful courtiers indulged at the expence of his manners: but he despised them. During my ministry, I never knew him sanction one superfluous expence. "Let us be," he would observe to his ministers, "thrifty dispensers of the public treasure. It

is the price of the sweat, and in some cases of the tears of my people." —Unhappily all his ministers did not partake of his sentiments.

"I was often struck with the high opinion which the king entertained of his nation. He felt a pride in naming and numbering the great men of whom it could boast. He ordered a collection to be made of their statues in the Gallery of the Louvre; and the best artists were employed to execute them. "I am desirous," said His Majesty to me, "of having before my eyes the images of those to whom France owes her glory. To view them every day will be to me an admonition and an enjoyment." The king had small casts of them distributed through his apartments."

This eminent magistrate seems to have entertained widely different sentiments from a late member of the English bar:

"I had scarcely taken my place as a minister before I attempted *to restore to the king the hearts of a portion of his subjects*, and to the Protestants the enjoyment of their civil rights. On this subject I had many conversations with him. Struck by the considerations which I submitted to him, "Yes," he would say, "I agree with you that humanity requires toleration. Persecution never converts; it only makes hypocrites and traitors. The gentleness which persuades is of more value than the severity which irritates. I do not desire that, for the simple fact of religious opinions, any Frenchman should be persecuted or punished. But the law, which determines the condition of Protestants, is a law of the state; Louis XIV. was the author of it; and our highest courts wish to maintain it. Let us not remove antient land-marks; for wisdom fixed them. Let us, above all, distrust the councils of a blind philanthropy."

'I had more than once remarked that, in the case of any changes proposed to the king, nothing had so much weight with him as his respect for antient institutions, and above all for the memory of Louis XIV. "Sire," replied I, "*times and circumstances require other measures*. That which was judged useful by Louis XIV. may be pernicious at this day. Besides, utility and policy are never at variance with justice." "Where then," answered the king, "is the harm done to justice? Is not the safety of the state the supreme law? For two hundred years, the wars of religion agitated France. Louis XIV., in removing from the great family a few of its turbulent members, desired to establish peace in its bosom. As a king, it was his duty. If the Protestants find my authority press them too hard, let them sell their possessions and go to other states: I do not hinder them: but is it justice to sacrifice to the well being of a few, the tranquillity of the great body of my subjects?"—In all my attempts, (continues this same excellent minister,) I could obtain nothing from the king in favour of the Protestants, but the suppression of pains and penalties. The Cardinal de Loménie, no doubt owing to the ascendancy of his rank and profession, was more fortunate; and, under his administration, the Protestants were restored to their civil rights. This favour claimed gratitude on their part: but you know, as well as I, that the king had no enemies more implacable."—

M. de

M. de Malesherbes might have added that the boon came too late; for it was not granted till the government was in a state of actual dissolution. Had it been conceded earlier, and had the good monarch set himself in time to repair the injustice of Louis XIV., he would have secured as his steady friends, in his declining fortunes, two millions of the most orderly, efficient, and respectable of the middle class of his subjects. It has never been represented by any of the writers on the French Revolution, that the bondage in which the House of Bourbon retained their Protestant subjects tended in any degree to increase and prolong its stability. Henry IV. established the civil rights of Protestants on the basis of law, and even invested them with royalties; and his reign, though short, was glorious. France never stood higher abroad, and was never in a more enviable and prosperous state, than under this magnanimous and tolerant king; whose prime minister, the incorrupt and estimable Sully, was a Protestant. Cardinal Richelieu, whose plan was to degrade the nobles, and to render the monarch absolute, stripped the Protestant body of its royalties, but left their civil rights untouched. Thus matters continued under the administration of Mazarin, and during the splendid part of the reign of Louis XIV. From the epoch in which that monarch, yielding to the councils of priests and mistresses, proscribed the religious privileges and civil rights of his Protestant subjects, is to be dated the decline of France; which increased progressively, till the awful period in which she was destined to become the scourge of the world, but the far more dire scourge of herself. If it be said that the Protestants were emancipated previously to the sad catastrophe, again we answer, that the measure came too late to have any salutary effect:—but will any one allege that the fall of the Bourbon family was hastened or aggravated by that event? It ought not to be forgotten, and singular as it may appear it is the fact, that the French Protestants, previously to the repeal of the Edict of Nantes, professed and preached up the doctrine of passive obedience, and were zealous adherents to the prerogative; while their opponents, the predominant Gallican clergy, in the Assembly of the States General of 1614, negatived the resolution which declared it unlawful to resist the royal authority. If the repeal of the Edict of Nantes, and their long subsequent bondage, made the Protestants change their sentiments, can it excite our wonder?

In France, the Protestants did not amount to at most above one twelfth of the whole population. In the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Catholics fall little, if at all short of one fourth of his Majesty's subjects, while a remaining fourth

is not of the dominant church. If, then, a proscription of men on account of their religion was attended with fatal effects in France, where their proportion was comparatively so small, and where all other persons were of the established church, who will say that in our own country such a proscription is a wise and a safe course? Ordinary statesmen regard the possession of power only, and look not beyond the moment: but the public, were it capable, ought to look into the future. From the errors which have plunged our neighbours into such an abyss of misery, let us endeavour to learn useful lessons for our own practice.

Our attention to the subject of this dialogue between the good monarch and his virtuous minister has carried us to a greater length than we intended, and precludes us from inserting any more of the curious anecdotes which the reader will here find chronologically arranged. They extend from 1788 to the end of the year 1795, when M. Hue left France in order to accompany the Princess Royal from Paris to Vienna, on her being released from the Temple. We have no ground for disputing the authenticity of the interesting particulars here related: but we are inclined to conjecture that they have been thrown into form by a greater master of composition than we should expect M. Hue to be. The sketches of leading characters, which occur in this volume, are executed in a superior style.

Jo.

ART. XII. *The Exodiad*, a Poem. By the Authors of Calvary and Richard the First. 4to. pp. 224. 15s. Boards. Lackington and Co. 1807.

WE should mention it as a matter of some surprise that the *negative success* which, on the author's own confession, accompanied the publication of the poem intitled *Calvary*, had not discouraged Mr. Cumberland from attempts of a similar kind, were we not apprized of the peculiar reluctance of poets to derive instruction from the vulgar preceptress, *Experience*. It is, indeed, an instance of a *partnership* in *self*-delusion (if the phrase may be admitted,) that two gentlemen of taste and knowlege of the world should for a moment imagine that a work, like that before us, is calculated to administer pleasure to the lovers of poetry in this age of refined, and (to speak the language of the grocers) *double-refined* fastidiousness. Uncommon endowments of genius, united with singular address and felicity of contrivance, will ever be necessary in working up the relations of sacred writ into the form of an epic poem.

Invention,

Invention, and the *licentia poetica*, are for the most part excluded; and if the narratives, with which we are familiar, are little more than rythmically paraphrased, the reader is dragged on rather than enticed, and in fact moves slower on the back of Pegasus than in the car of the historian. What peculiar interest is excited by measuring out the well-known phraseology of Scripture in lines of ten syllables, and occasionally interspersing it with Homeric similes, which appear only as patches of gaudy colours sewed on a plain vestment?

Possibly, it may be alleged by this *par nobile poetarum*, that their object was to invite the present generation to a serious survey of the sublime passages of sacred story; that by these means the wonders of Divine Providence might be deeply impressed on the mind; and that it was their ardent wish to consecrate the Epopee to the cause of Revelation, instead of suffering it to be engrossed by an idle and childish mythology.—For good meaning, then, we are ready to allow them the most ample credit: but mere good intention will not gratify in a poem. The *pulchra* and the *dulcia* must be displayed; or languor, if not absolute disgust, will ensue. It is therefore not difficult to predict the fate of the poem before us; and we are sorry to be under the necessity of giving it as our opinion, that the authors of the *Exodiad* (to borrow the words of the advertisement) have by its publication rather bequeathed a memorial of their friendship than left a monument of their fame. We honestly confess that we opened this volume with the expectation of finding its merits in point of composition superior to those which it really possesses. Lest, however, we should be accused of any leaning to the side of severity, and the respectable authors should complain that our decision is unsupported by evidence, we shall extend our extracts to a greater length than otherwise we should have assigned to them.

The invocation, which exhibits the subject of the poem, is certainly not unhappily expressed:

> 'Of Israel, by Jehovah's mighty power
> From long captivity redeem'd, with loss
> And total overthrow of Egypt's host,
> What time the chosen servant of the Lord
> From Goshen to the land of promise led
> Through the divided sea the ransom'd tribes,
> Sing, heavenly Muse, and prop those mortal powers,
> Which but for thy sustaining aid must sink
> Under the weight of argument so vast,
> Scenes so majestic, subject so sublime.'

After this address to the Muse, we enter on the business of the poem; which commences as soon as the tribes of Israel had passed the Red Sea and were in view of the desert. Moses who

who is called 'the *Legate* of Omnipotence,' arranges them under their proper leaders, offers a pious thanksgiving, and in an address to the people endeavours to allay their murmuring at the unpromising appearance of the country. Accents of discontent break forth from Korah; who, rebuked by Joshua, departs to his tent: after which, Moses, at the requisition of Aaron, thus recites the circumstances that accompanied his divine designation to his high office:

'As still my eyes
Were fix'd upon the mount, which now appear'd
To tremble from its base, as if inspir'd
By feelings new and undefinable,
My swelling heart with warm devotion glow'd.
When lo! direct in view a flaming bush
With sudden splendor blaz'd; the curling fire
Now shot on high, now spread on every hand,
Whilst in the midst entire the bush remain'd.
Kneeling and mute the prodigy I view'd,
When from the centre of the flaming mass
I heard a voice, that call'd me twice by name;
Obedient I replied; again the voice
Broke on my ear—'Approach not nigh,' it cried,
'Put off thy shoes, for holy is the ground,
On which thou standest; I, thy father's God,
Now present speak to thee'—To earth I bow'd,
And hid my face, to look on God afraid;
When thus the Lord—'Be sure that I have seen
Th' affliction of my people, and am come
To bring them forth from bondage, to a land
With milk and honey flowing; thou art he,
Whom I will send to Pharaoh to conduct
From out of Egypt my redeemed host'—
I, prostrate still, with fault'ring voice replied,
'Almighty Lord, of what account am I,
That I to Pharaoh's presence should repair,
And do this wond'rous thing—?' Again the Lord—
'I will be with thee, and upon this mount
Me shall ye worship, when I've brought you out'—
These gracious words my confidence renew'd,
And thus I ventur'd to enquire of God—
'Lord, when to Israel's children I shall come,
And shall announce these tidings, should they ask
Who is my sender, how shall I reply—?'
Again from out the fire I heard a voice
Distinct and awful—'Say, Jehovah sends thee,
That is my name, and in that name go forth,
And with the elders say to Egypt's king,
We are the servants of the living God,
And He hath met us. Grant us now to go
A journey of three days into the desart,
That we may sacrifice unto the Lord'—

All

All this is very closely copied from the sacred account of the calling of Moses: but into the copy not one atom of poetry is infused. It is more correct in point of rhythm than Zachary Boyd's singular version of the Scriptures, but in what else is it superior?

As the narrative advances, the poetry does not improve:

> 'Jacob's sons,
> Hard pinch'd with want, came begging to the doors
> Of Pharaoh, who for pity took them in.'

The conference between Korah, Dathan, and Abiram, is rather more animated: but is the apostrophe to father Nile in character with an Israelite?—Korah thus vents his rage against Moses:

> 'Heav'n guard my faith
> From such unvouch'd assertions! Sure I am
> His whole life is a fable from the time,
> When launch'd and floating on his ozier raft,
> A wailing infant, he was drawn to land
> By Pharaoh's daughter, and thence Moses call'd:
> Nor did she only name him, but adopt
> And train him as her son—Oh father Nile,
> What secrets hast thou witness'd in thy course!
> Who but can spy a preconcerted plot,
> Where Jochebed but play'd the mother's part,
> To screen the frailty of the Memphian dame?
> Take him, Osiris! He is all thine own.
> Cradled in artifice, and early school'd
> In all the mystery of Egyptian lore,
> Behold a man made perfect in deceit!
> Trace him through all the mazes of his craft,
> And who can doubt, meek-seeming as he is,
> What mighty projects of ambition breed
> And *bourgeon* in his heart? When Pharaoh died—
> Now mark his policy—protection fail'd,
> And Israel groan'd in bondage; he who lov'd
> Nor toil nor slavery, fled to Midian's land,
> And providently deem'd it easier task
> To tend the flock of Jethro, than to share
> The stripes and pains and drudgery we endur'd:
> Peaceful were all his days, his nights secure,
> Ours was the labour, his was the repose,
> If in his bosom, whom ambition haunts,
> Peace and repose can harbour; for ev'n there,
> Where all was solitude, and other cares,
> Save for his flock in charge, Moses had none,
> Strange voices, issuing from the midst of flames,
> On Horeb feign'd or fancied to be heard,
> Warn'd him to Egypt: on this plea he came,
> Vaunting his high commission from that power,

Whose sacred name, so treating, he profanes:
If this to doubt be sin, whilst yet it rests
Upon his sole averment, of all men
I am most guilty.'

An account is given, in the second book, of that part of Exodus which extends from the arrival of the tribes at Marah to the defeat and death of Amalek.

The miracle at Marah is accompanied by the following speech from Moses:

" Approach, he loudly cry'd,
With lively faith approach and quench your thirst!"
Then pluck'd a bough from an o'erhanging tree,
And cast it on the waters—" Lo! 'tis done,
Again he cried, the miracle's complete."

We have next this literal detail of the supply of Manna:

' Next morning with the first return of light,
Behold, the ground about the camp was strew'd
With what appear'd like honey-dew congeal'd,
Sweet to the taste, substantial, silv'ry-white,
In fashion like the coriander seed,
And as the hoar frost small; this when they saw,
They wist not what it was, and wond'ring cried—
'Tis manna—Strait from Moses came the word—
" 'Tis the Lord's bread: let him, that hungers, eat:
Bring forth your omers, fill them to the brim;
He, that o'erflows, shall nought superfluous gain,
And he, that gathers little, shall not lack:
Let no man leave of it, for day by day
God will provide, and all that ye reserve
Corruption shall defile."—So Moses spake,
And God was glorified, and Israel sav'd.'

Book III. terminates with the ten commandments put into blank verse; and here it would be cruel to withhold a specimen from the reader:

' I am the Lord thy God, which brought thee out,
And from the house of bondage set thee free:
Other than Me no God shalt thou confess.'
' Thou shalt not grave an image to thyself,
In form and fashion like to aught thou see'st,
In Heav'n above, or in the earth beneath,
Or in the watery depths below the earth.
To these thou shalt not bow thyself, nor make
The work of thine own hands to be a god:
For I the Lord am jealous, and my wrath
To third and fourth descendants will pursue
Apostacy paternal; but of those,
Who love and serve me, thousands shall receive
My mercy for the righteous father's sake.'

' Take

'Take not God's name in vain; for if thou dost,
Thy God will not acquit thee of the guilt.'

In the fourth book, we have a little invention and machinery. Korah flies to the desart, and invokes an evil spirit, which appears to him. This is the most poetical part of the whole: but it reminds us too much of Faustus selling himself to the Devil:

'Dark o'er the desart fell the shades of night,
And thick'ning vapours shrouded the pale stars,
When Korah, wand'ring wild, like one distraught,
Or him that walks in sleep, with felon step
Had pass'd the sandy waste, and now, immers'd
In deeper shade, he found his path beset
With crags and tangling bushes intermixt;
For at the mountain's base he had arriv'd.
Here, in a solitude, whose gloom inspir'd
Horrors congenial with his desperate thoughts,
He stopp'd and stood; then, as the swelling tide
Of recollection rush'd upon his mind,
Thus, mingling groans with words, and tears with rage,
The dire effusions of his soul burst forth.
"Why did the Maker call me into life?
Why waste His workmanship upon my clay,
And store it with perceptions, senses, thoughts
And understanding, for no other use
But to sum up my mis'ry's vast amount?
When he makes wretched, why not make me base,
Dull and irrational? Ah, why erect
This tyranny of conscience in my heart,
Which to avoid, to these unhallow'd rocks,
That never echo'd God's tremendous name,
Madd'ning I fly, and call the dæmons up
To wrap me in such horrors, as may blast
The eye, that does but glance upon my shame?
The Good Pow'r casts me from him; whither now,
But to the evil shall a wretch resort?
Whom shall I call? No more of Egypt's gods!
With them there is no refuge, no support;
They have been tried; their feeble aid has fail'd.
Esau was high in honour and renown:
When Jacob's race were slaves, he dealt out crowns
And kingdoms to his sons: Esau had gods,
Thought not of Abram's choice; and though the sword
Hath glanc'd on Amalek, still Chemos reigns
O'er the unconquer'd nations of the south.
If then thou art a god, and hast an ear,
Chemos, thou God of Esau, list to me!
I ask not death, for that I can command,
And death brings no revenge: I court thee not
For aught this world can give, and only wish

These Abramites to feel what Korah feels,
Shame, disappointment, phrensy and despair.
Let them like me go forth, like me invoke
Thee from thy central cavern to arise,
And meet them in this desolated waste;
Then, if thou hast the virtue of a fiend,
Turn their vain pray'r to mock'ry, and insult
Their vile apostacy, as dæmon should."—
' Thus as he rav'd blaspheming he perceiv'd
A vaporous light of pale and livid hue,
Descending from the mountain, till at length,
Alighting on his path, it led him on
To a rude altar, chissel'd from the rock,
And, resting there, discover'd to his view
This writing, deep engrav'd upon the stone—
" To Chemos, lord and light of all the earth,
Esau, when journeying from Beer-sheba, built
This altar. Hither let the wretched fly,
Approach and be at peace! So Chemos wills."—
' Pondering the wond'rous legend Korah stood,
When from behind the altar there arose
What seem'd a cloud, but more than cloud condense,
Though insubstantial, formless, undefin'd;
Trembling he gaz'd, and whilst he gaz'd, behold!
The pillar'd mist dissolving took the shape
And human features of an ancient man,
White bearded to the girdle: tall it stood,
And o'er its mantled shoulders seem'd to wear
A lion's shagged hide; whilst as it rose,
The flame, that heretofore had faintly play'd
About the altar, brighten'd and became
Intense and fiery red—Rooted with fear,
Depriv'd of speech and motion, Korah stood,
And thus at length the ghastly vision spake.—
" Son of Affliction, what thou readest there,
If rightly thou interpretest the text,
And dost believe in that transcendant power
Who offers thee this comfort, be thy grief
Deep as it may, however great thy sin,
Trusting in Chemos, from the galling yoke
Of a vext conscience thou shalt be releas'd,
And what thy heart desires, thy hand shall reach."—

After a conference, Korah submits to the wishes of the Dæmon:

" 'Tis well! the dæmon cried; thou art mine own;
And, as the night now deepens on the waste,
And thou hast far to travel, to thy tent
Swiftly I'll waft thee on the moment's wing
As in a dream."—This said, by magic spell
He caught the soul-surrendered caitiff up,
And laid him on his couch, unseen of all.'

We have finished with the most favourable specimens of the whole performance: but they will not obliterate the impression which must be made on readers of taste by the preceding extracts; and it is scarcely possible that Sir James Bland Burges and Mr. Cumberland should be encouraged to continue their partnership in the *Exodiad*, though they state that they have made much progress in the remaining four books. **Mo-y.**

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For SEPTEMBER, 1807.

AMERICAN AFFAIRS.

Art. 13. *Concessions to America the Bane of Britain;* or the Cause of the present distressed Situation of the British Colonial and Shipping Interests explained, and the proper Remedy suggested. 8vo. 2s. Richardsons, &c. 1807.

THIS advocate for the West India planters paints in lively colours the hardships under which they at present labour, and supports his statements by numerous facts. He complains that, while our sugar colonies are oppressed by the most ruinous restrictions, and while the market for sugar is overstocked, and the wholesale price is little more than half that which is necessary to indemnify the planter for the bare cost of raising it, our enemies are supplied from their colonies on advantageous terms, by means of a neutral power (American,) which, without being herself mistress of a single colony, now imports more West India produce from the colonies of our enemies, than is made in all those which are annexed to the crown of Great Britain. It is then argued that, unless some measures of relief are extended to our colonies, they must be driven to the necessity of raising provisions instead of produce. To avert this impending evil, and others immediately connected with it, our Government is urged to make a change in the present system respecting neutrals, and to prohibit the Americans from being carriers for our enemies; or to request them to carry the commerce of our colonies also, that we may receive their produce in Europe at peace-freights and peace-premiums of insurance.

Should it be alleged that a war between Great Britain and the United States must be the consequence of our issuing an absolute order, prohibiting America from re-exporting any colonial produce to Europe, this author replies that her hostility would be less formidable to us than her present neutrality. We admit with him that the West Indian planters labour under present hardships: but we cannot be of opinion that a war with America would afford the best means of removing them. Our ministers (we trust) will throw their thoughts wider than the limited range of this writer, and suffer other matters to enter into their consideration of peace or war, besides the counting-house speculations of the merchant. **Mo-y.**

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 14. *Observations on the Mildew*, suggested by the Queries of Mr. Arthur Young. By John Egremont, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Mr. Egremont coincides with us in opinion respecting the origin of this disease, which he considers to be principally atmospheric, or to be chiefly produced by great and sudden transitions of cold and heat, moisture and dryness. In conformity with this sentiment, he thinks (as we have always done) that the fungus is the *consequence*, not the *cause*, of the mischief, and rejects the theory maintained in Sir Joseph Banks's treatise on the Blight. The following fact is adduced in justification of this hypothesis: 'Travelling in the afternoon on the 11th of July, 1804, I found it so extremely cold, as to induce a belief that the thermometer would have been near the freezing point in the shade. The day following was much warmer, and for some days after the heat kept increasing: on the 16th, 17th, and 18th, it was intolerably hot. Within about a week from that time the disease made its appearance.' We recommend this pamphlet to the perusal of the agricultural reader, who will find the author to possess a clear and philosophical mind.

Mo.y.

Art. 15. *Observations respecting the Grub:* A paper read at the Holderness Agricultural Society. By William Stickney, of Ridgemont, in Holderness; and published by the Society. 2d Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Harding.

The Grub here noticed produces the fly commonly known by the names of *Tom Taylor*, *Harry Longlegs*, or *Father Longlegs*, and belongs to the genus *Tipula*. Mr. S. presented the Society with specimens of this insect in its fly, egg, grub, and aurelia states, though it is only as a grub that it is injurious to the farmer. It does not appear that lime will destroy it: but rooks are of singular use in this hostility.

Do

EAST-INDIA AFFAIRS.

Art. 16. *A Letter from Sir Philip Francis, K. B. to Lord Viscount Howick*, on the State of the East India Company. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1807.

If writing with perspicuity and ability be any proof of competence to fill a high situation, the gentleman from whose pen this pamphlet comes has a better title to office than any who have lately discussed the affairs of India; and if this were any test, we should feel regret that popular clamour, and the perverseness of the Leadenhall sovereigns, deprived the empire of the services of a very upright and well informed functionary. Sir Philip perseveres in his resolution to withdraw himself from the discussion of political questions purely and properly Indian; and his object in the present instance is, he says, only to prevent the finances of Britain from being ruined by those of India.—We are told that the Company, in last March, made out a balance in their favour of upwards of twelve millions: but the author is not satisfied with this statement; and he contends

contends that it ought to be inquired whether the Company's capital, which the corporation holds for the public, and which amounts to nearly eight millions, ought not to be debited against this account: whether they do not reckon nearly two millions and a half as due from government, for which they have received three millions; whether the India house and their warehouses are worth the sum at which they rate them, which is more than a million; and whether their annuities in the funds are valued at par, or at the market price?

Sir Philip complains of the Company not having paid the annual half million stipulated in their last charter; and he censures the resolution of the proprietors to allow a dividend of ten and a half per cent, while they were ignorant of the state of their finances abroad.

'The power of parliament,' adds the author, 'to distribute or even to waste the property of their constituents has been too long established by practice to admit of a dispute. But has the House of Commons a moral right, does it possess a constitutional competence, does it fall within the limits of any rational idea of the trust reposed in them, to feed the wants, and support the existence of a mercantile corporation out of the public purse? and if the right to do so were as clear as the power, the doing it would have no other effect than to put off for a short period the declared insolvency of the East India Company.'—He farther states that, in the present circumstances of the Company, the House of Commons cannot, without a breach of trust, connive at their borrowing money. Jo.

POETRY.

ART. 17. *The Britanniad*, or the Choice of Ministers, written in 1806. The *Hiberniad*, or the Change of Ministers, written in 1807. A satirical Poem in two Parts. 4to. 2s. 6d. Stockdale, junior.

Surely this gentleman never asked himself the question *quid valeant humeri?* or he would not, with his moderate poetical talents, have undertaken a satirical poem which requires the combination of peculiar skill and energy. Poor Britannia never poured forth oratory less inspired than this rhiming reporter publishes under her name. She is made to say, in recommending unanimity to the people of England, Scotland, and Ireland:

'But altogether joining in one whole
Each is to each as body is to soul—
Our civil Trinity of three in one
Next to our sacred Trinity alone—
By Union sav'd, from Union never swerve;
Each minister, each man, strain ev'ry nerve,—'

In the second part, the author tells us that he 'seeks a patriot's more than poet's name;' and we are ready to concede to him the former, provided he will renounce the latter; for, though the following advice be very sound sense, it is not given in language which would pass current on Parnassus:

'And live, or die, as Christians liv'd and died—
In fear of God, in honour to the King,
In charity to all and ev'ry thing.
But most of all, in your own conscience strong
Never the consciences of others wrong.
Beware of persecution, 'tis the path,
By temp'ral vengeance, to eternal wrath.
If we must suffer, or must offer wrong
Doubt we which of the two to rank among!
The persecuted can but suffer here,
The persecutors must for ever fear.'

This writer's sentiments respecting the late change in Administration may be collected from the following hobbling lines:

'Was it disloyalty then? No such thing—
The Church was not in danger, nor the King—
Excuses, second causes these at most,
GRENVILLE, when PITT you lost, yourself you lost.'

Our readers would, no doubt, lose all patience if we gave them any more specimens.

Mo-y.

Art. 18. *Trafalgaris Pugna:* the Battle of Trafalgar, a Latin Poem: with a literal Translation in English Prose. By Juvenis. 4to. Pamphlet. Printed at York.

As a juvenile attempt, this poem may be intitled to praise. We are aware of the difficulty of finding classical terms adapted to the modern mode of rigging and fighting ships: but we are rather surprised that the literary gentlemen, to whom it is said that this poem was first shewn, did not object to the phrase *cornua navis* for 'the yard arms.' Virgil has employed *cornua antennarum* to denote the extremities of the yards to which certain hooks were affixed, and for which reason Lucan calls them *Cer[illegible]uchi.*—Juvenis prides himself on not having been under the necessity of inserting a single line from any author whatever: but he has taken, with a little alteration, Virgil's description of the two Scipios, "*duo fulmina belli,*" and has applied it (not unhappily,) to Lords Nelson and Collingwood. His line is

'*Ambo in honore pares, ambo duo fulmina pugnâ.*

The recurrence of the word *undique* in the same place of the line, within twelve verses, would be scarcely allowable even in a school exersise. On the whole, however, the subject is impressively exhibited, and the lines have an easy flow.

We do not comprehend the meaning of the directions to the artists for the construction of Nelson's monument; nor what can be understood by 'a Golden *circle* exhibiting at the four *corners* the profile of the admiral.'

D.º

Art. 19. *An Olio!* by F. S. A. 4to. Pamphlet. Printed at Bath.

This *delicate* little poem having been appended by the author to the Temple of Cloacina, a flaming representation of which is exhibited in a vignette in the title-page, we shall not remove it from the sanctuary

sanctuary of the goddess, but leave it to be *fundamentally* reviewed, as occasions may serve, by her *sedate* votaries. **Mo-y.**

Art. 20. *The Swiss Exile*, a Poem. By Shirley Palmer. 4to. pp. 20. 3s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Co.

A frontispiece, by Medland, and the spirit of patriotism which pervades this effusion, are more deserving of commendation than its poetical qualities. The latter, however, are far from contemptible, if we reflect that the author, when he consigned it to the public, had but just completed his eighteenth year, and could allot to its composition only a 'few, short, and uncertain intervals of relaxation, from the duties of a most arduous and fatiguing profession.'

We quote two stanzas from the Exile's prayer.

'Now to England I journey—She—Freedom's delight—
Shall shelter, from Switzerland's Tyrant, my head;
For her shall this arm be stretch'd forth in the fight,
And this heart's purple Stream be exultingly shed.'

'O! thou Mighty in battle! avenge her just cause,
With her fleets go Thou forth—With her armies advance
Bless her zeal in defence of her Sovereign, and Laws,
And her efforts to crush the usurper of France!'

Ainsi soit-il! **Muir.**

Art. 21. *Turf-House*, a Poem; founded on the Success of William Pearce, a poor Man, who reclaimed twelve Acres of Swamp to Cultivation and Fertility, for which he received the Silver Medal and Fifteen Guineas from the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. With an Appendix containing the Particulars of the interesting Fact. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bagster.

'Writhing Invention' may writhe and wriggle a long time, before it could fix on a subject more unpromising for poetry, either in blank verse or in rhime, than the title of this compostion as it first presents itself. The author might have named his poem *The Cottage of Turf*: but, to have been more truly *descriptive*, it should have been intitled, *The Contrast, or a Poor Poet's abortive Lines on a poor Agriculturist's successful Labour*. Had not William Pearce known better how to cultivate wastes than this writer to cultivate the Muse, he would never have obtained a silver medal and fifteen guineas. 'Intention pure' we concede to him; and in loving the arts of peace rather than those of war, and wishing

'To raise the steps of agriculture's throne
And make the empire of the plough ascendant,'

he displays virtuous sentiment: but as for poetic skill, he merits no praise from the critic. As he 'anticipates his condemnation,' we hope that the sentence will not overwhelm him. **Mo-y.**

Art. 22. *An Essay on Nature*. By Henry Barwick, Officer of Excise, Stanstead, near Hertford, Herts. 12mo. 1s. Button.

'And who admires not all the various forms
Prolific nature generates in swarms?'

Mr. Barwick's

Mr. Barwick's admiration of nature may not be called in question: but we are persuaded that, had the late venerable Marquis Townshend perused the poem which by permission is here dedicated to him, he would have advised the author to admire in silence. In good truth, this gentleman may be duly commissioned to carry His Majesty's inkhorn, but he has not dipt his pen in the Helliconian fount. Moy.

LAW.

Art. 23. *The Law of Charitable Uses*, as laid down and digested By George Duke, Esq. in 1679. together with the learned Readings of Sir Francis Moore, printed from his own Manuscript. To which is now added, the Law of Mortmain, as established by the Statute of 9 George II. c. 36. The whole continued to the present Time. Enlightened by an Abridgment of all the adjudged Cases, particularly adapted to the Use of every Professor of the Law, as well as all Bishops, Cathedrals, Colleges, Parishes, and all Corporations, Ecclesiastical as well as Civil: and all Eleemosynary Foundations. By Richard Whalley Bridgman, Esq. Author of the Analytical Digest in Equity, &c. 8vo. pp. 689. 19s. Boards. Clarke.

We are informed by Mr. Bridgman that this edition of Mr. Duke's valuable work is owing to a conversation which Mr. B. held with the late Mr. Justice Buller, and the high opinion of its authority which was expressed by that acute and learned judge. Mr. B. was thus induced to sit down to republish the Law of Charitable Uses, with a continuation of all the cases determined subsequently to its first appearance; adding to it the History of Mortmain, and a statement of the law on that subject as established by the statute of 9 Geo. II. c. 36.

The editor adds, 'that it has been frequently regretted that a book of the acknowledged merit of the present, affording abundant information to every Diocesan, to the members of every cathedral, college, corporation, parish, and every eleemosynary foundation (whether public or private) within His Majesty's dominions, and to every conveyancer, and solicitor employed to prepare devises and bequests to charitable purposes, should never have been modernized, and continued to the present day.' It was to supply this defect that Mr. Bridgman engaged in the labours of which we have here the result: they bear that character for diligence, judgment, and correctness, which belongs to the former exertions of the editor in the same department; and therefore we regard him as having, by the present publication, laid the profession and the various descriptions of persons before enumerated under considerable obligations. We must, however, apprize our readers that the views taken of the subject, by both author and editor, are principally confined to alienations to charitable uses. Jo.

Art. 24. *A Detail of the Duties of a Deputy Judge Advocate;* with Precedents of Forms of the various Documents, used in summoning, assembling, and holding a Naval Court Martial; with the proceedings thereof, to the passing of Sentence; also Records of Sentences,

Sentences, with Cases and Opinions on Special Points. By Robert Liddel, one of the Senior Pursers in His Majesty's Navy. Folio. pp. 155. 14s. Boards. Wilkie and Robinson.

Mr. Liddel remarks in his preface 'that the origin and history of Naval Courts Martial, together with the natures of charges, crimes, and evidence, having employed the pens of two of the seniors in the author's department of His Majesty's Naval Service, he presumes it is reserved for him to attempt an exemplification of the formalities by which such Courts Martial are conducted.' He admits, however, that much has already been written on the subject, and that 'the Duties of an Officiating Judge Advocate have been treated of:' but he thinks that they have not been displayed 'in that diffuse and practical way in which he has treated the subject in the following sheets: in which he trusts he has exhibited the several parts of that duty, and their connection, so clearly as to impress the subject on the mind of the reader in such way as to render him, if at all conversant with the Naval Service of his Country, at once capable of officiating as Judge Advocate, with ease and accuracy.'

Mr. L. concludes by soliciting that patronage which we think his work deserves: since it has the advantage of proceeding from a man of experience, it appears to have been compiled with care, and the statements are perspicuous.

Jo. Gz

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 25. *The Young Person's Assistant in reading the Old Testament;* in a Series of Letters from a Mother to her Children, relative to Divine Truth. By Mrs. Dawbarn. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Printed at Wisbech.

Do we act fairly and ingenuously by young persons, when, under the pretext of giving them some assistance in understanding the Scriptures, we endeavour to mould their views to the shape and size of our own prejudices? Mrs. Dawbarn cautions her children against being 'led away by education-principles;' and if they were capable, they ought to apply this good advice in the perusal of their mother's book: but it would have been better if the parent herself had taken this hint, and remembered that the young are (according to the apostolic rule) to be "fed with milk, and not with strong meat." Let them be assisted in understanding the plain and historical parts of Scripture, and let Mrs. Dawbarn extract from Shuckford, Prideaux, Collyer, Calmet, &c. for their information: but in the execution of such a compilation, let her infuse the least possible mixture of controversial divinity, reserving it for their riper years to form opinions on abstruse points. If we are correct in this principle, the pamphlet before us is not calculated for a plan of rational and ingenuous education, but is fitted rather for the schools than for children at school. In other respects also Mrs. D. appears to have exceeded her province; and her attempt at a Scripture Exposition has seduced her beyond her depth. What she means by 'John having taken the word *Mimra* from the Targums,' we know not. Mrs. D. has endeavoured to draw a bow to which her strength was unequal.

r/

Mo.y.

Art.

Art. 26. *The Unitarian Doctrine, that "Jesus Christ is a mere Man, in all Respects like unto other Men and no more," completely refuted:* being a friendly and candid Address to Unitarians in general; and also a particular Reply to some late Publications by the Rev. T. Belsham, Mr. Wright, &c. &c. proving their Doctrines concerning Jesus Christ to be totally unscriptural, subversive of true Christianity, and most dishonourable to the Redeemer and Saviour of Men, who is herein proved to be the only God of Heaven and Earth. By the Rev. J. Proud, Minister of York Street Chapel, St. James's Square, Westminster. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard, &c.

Think not, gentle reader, that Mr. Proud here so heroically takes the field against the whole host of Unitarians, and provokes their Goliahs to single combat, instigated by zeal in support of the old Trinitarian hypothesis: he has no such motive: for a Trinity of his own he brandishes his goose quill: but, if we know any thing of the merits of this controversy, ordinary Trinitarians will be as little inclined to join his standard as even Unitarians. According to him, 'the Divine Trinity, under the name of Father, Son, and Holy Spirit, are neither more nor less than THREE ESSENTIALS OF ONE GOD. The general essentials of any one man are his *soul*, his *body*, and his *operations*; and that these three constitute *one* essence is evident from this circumstance, that one existeth by derivation from the other. That these *three essentials*, viz. body, soul and operation, *essence*, *form*, and *operation*, did and do exist in the Lord, God, and Saviour, must be acknowledged.'

To this explanation, which is so very clear to Mr. Proud, few will be able to subscribe. If operations must be considered as making a part of the essence of a being, the labours of Hercules will form a part of his Essence; or to speak more seriously and more directly to the purpose, if the operations of the Deity are a part of his Essence, the material world must be a part of the Divine Nature. We excuse ourselves from the useless task of directly combating this singular tenet.

Since one Hell has not been sufficient to keep His Majesty's refractory subjects in order, Mr. Proud advertises a plurality of *Hells*: but if he does not succeed better with his terrifics than with his arguments, our Judges will not find the Calendars at the Assizes less heavy than usual, in consequence of his declarations.

Mo-y.

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *Thoughts on the Value, to Great Britain, of Commerce in general;* and on the Value and Importance of the Colonial Trade in particular. By Charles Bosanquet, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. 83. 2s. Richardson.

It is the opinion of Mr. Bosanquet, that the benefits which commerce bestows on Great Britain flow from its tendency to raise its population beyond that amount which the mere cultivation of the land would subsist, to supply hands for our navy, and to add to the public revenue. In the present state of Europe, he maintains that our safety requires that our population should be as large as possible; and

and that our commerce has this tendency, he says, is apparent from the fact that we are obliged to import one million of quarters of corn annually, besides other provisions.—He shews that the increase derived in this country from commerce and manufactures is the double of that which arises from land; and it hence clearly follows that the pressure of the taxes on land must be greater or less as commerce and manufactures diminish or augment.

Having developed the advantages which the empire reaps from commerce in general, he considers those which flow from the West India trade.

'The islands,' he tells us, 'possessing no manufactures, every article required in them for use or shew is imported from Britain. From the crown of the head to the sole of the foot, a West India planter is clothed from Great Britain and Ireland.. Five hundred thousand negroes are constantly clad by the clothiers of Yorkshire and Wiltshire; not a button, or a shoe, or a hat are obtained except from this country. London, Birmingham, Bristol, and Carron supply alike the mill-work, the nails, the hoes, the tools and utensils of domestic life, and the implements of husbandry; the ash coppices of Sussex furnish hoops to bind the casks in which the produce is transported. Hence it is that the sailing of a West India fleet is an epoch in the diary of every shop through the kingdom.'

The West India trade is also the cause of the very great exportation heretofore made to Africa.

Mr. B. appears to us to complain with great reason of the injudicious legal enactments with respect to the sugar trade. Indeed, it seems that this vital part of our traffic recently experienced injury from the public attention being diverted from it *by the late supposed dangers of popery.*—Cotton and rum are the principal articles on which he dwells, in order to shew the extreme value of West India commerce.—He enters also into an elaborate comparison between the East and West India trade; the superiority of the latter of which, we imagine, is much greater than is generally apprehended. The estimates of each are here drawn up with much neatness. In the East India trade, the tonnage falls short of that employed in the West Indian by 168,000 tons; and in regard to the number of seamen, the latter has a balance in its favour of 9000. The quickness of return, and a general diffusion of benefits, are also on the same side.—Moreover, the outports of the West India trade are various; whereas that to the East is confined to the port of London. The exports of the latter trade do not amount to a half of those of the former; and the gross return of the West India trade exceeds that of the trade to the East by $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions. We refer the reader for a candid statement of these matters to the pages before us.

Mr. Bosanquet asserts that we are richer by the whole capital invested in our colonies, than we should have been had we never possessed any colonies: but in order to establish this fact, he must shew that the capital, enterprize, and perseverance employed there would have lain dormant, and have taken no other direction. An admission much more limited will answer his purpose. Let it be conceded to

him

him, and we think it must, that British wealth and industry could have found no channel so lucrative as the colonies, and the main scope of his argument will still be good.

We agree that nothing is so fallacious as the hypothesis which regards commerce and manufactures as pernicious to agriculture, by draining capital from it. Facts shew that they advance agriculture; and that in their absence it is stationary. The elucidation of the auspicious influence of commerce on agriculture would form a fine disquisition: in which facts and theory would abundantly establish the position. The principles, and their application in part, are to be found in Dr. Smith.

It is also maintained by Mr. B. that the monopoly of the colonial trade attempted, and in a great degree effected, in the late war, by the capture of the enemy's colonies, and the encouragement given to their cultivation by the government of that day, operated as a vital blow to the prosperity of the British colonies, and the stability of their trade, by rendering them dependent on export; by which means, he says, a domestic trade was converted into a foreign commerce.

On the score of permanence, the author deems our Western colonies to have the advantage over our Eastern settlements; the former are wholly British; they are less exposed to the fate of war; and the investments in the one case are never as in the other diverted from their legitimate course, in order to support hostilities.

If the task undertaken by this advocate of our West India posessions was not difficult, and if the paradoxes which owed their origin to a laudable zeal for the abolition of an obnoxious traffic were extravagant, it must be admitted that the manner in which this champion has acquitted himself proves him to be equal to undertakings of far greater pith and moment. His tract, however, contains some criticisms in which we do not wholly acquiesce. He refers to '*the luminous and delightful Treatise of Mr. Malthus.*' Luminous we admit it to be, but we deny that it is delightful. It is able, important, and convincing, but it is sombre, it is self-denying, it is indeed any thing but delightful. To this matter we are not without some right to speak, since we were among the first who apprized the public of the merit of that standard performance, which we recommended to the sedulous study of the philosopher and the statesman. The rank which we assigned to it, every subsequent day more and more confirms: but the vast importance of its doctrines is not yet duly felt, at least has not sufficiently become operative.—Dr. Smith has, we allow, sometimes made use of incautious and inconsistent expressions with regard to commerce, but the full deveopement of its principles is only to be found in his work. **Jo.**

Art. 28. *The present Crisis in Germany, and the North of Europe:* with Animadversions on the Conduct and Designs of France respecting Austria and the Empire, at various Periods. 8vo. pp. 71. 2s. Budd. 1807.

When it appeared that the French were able to maintain their station during the winter, and to hold out to a summer campaign, the issue

issue of events since realized could surprize only the ignorant and the wilfully deluded. The abundantly superior resources of Bonaparte, and his pre-eminence in tactics and generalship, left no ground for hope to sober and well-informed minds: the fall of Dantzic was a sure prelude to all that ensued; and they ill support the character of statesmen who anticipated a result different from that which has happened. The writer of the pamphlet before us certainly falls under this censure, but it is shared with him by men of far higher consideration. A strange delusion has all along accompanied the errors which have superinduced the calamities of Europe; and we conceive that it was never more strongly instanced than in the flattering expectations which some persons continued to entertain, down to the later stages of the recent continental struggle.

This author is a zealous partizan of the House of Austria; and opposition to it in all times is treated by him as criminal. We are not aware of the claims of this august house to such deference; and we see little to blame in the opposition given to it in the reign of Charles V., and during the thirty years' war. The alliance of France with the Imperial House, in the seven years' war, is here stated as having been injurious to Austria. It is the first time that we have seen the transaction so represented:—but the matter admits of no controversy; it was a master stroke on the part of the Court of Vienna, and was clearly impolitic on that of France. When we call to mind the designs of the House of Austria on Bavaria, it does not appear to us to be so extraordinary as it is here considered, that its Elector should be generally in the French interest.—Altogether, indeed, the speculations of this pamphlet would at no time have struck us as plausible: but the battle of Friedland occasions them to appear quite ludicrous.

That the late situation of the king of Prussia was not so hopeless as it was generally imagined to be, is a point laboured by this writer. He then asks whether the situation of Frederic was not more than once equally unfavourable: but, conceding this, (which, however, is by no means the fact,) is there no difference between the late enemy of Prussia and her enemy in the seven years' war, nor between the great Frederic and the reigning king? In fine, the zeal of this writer is more to be commended than his knowlege; and he is more a master of style than of the modern system of Europe. Late events have rendered his tract apocryphal. **Jo.**

Art. 29. *Catholic Emancipation contended for*, and justified from the Words of eminent Statesmen, and the plain Deductions of Justice and Common Sense. Annexed hereto is a Letter, forcibly recommending no Peace with France. By William Russel, Author of several Pamphlets. 8vo. 1s. Sold at No. 23, Maiden Lane, Covent Garden.

One of the eminent statesmen, to whom this title-page refers, is the late Mr. Pitt; and the extracts from his speech on the Union with Ireland, which are here given, notwithstanding the extreme caution which they display, contain admissions which completely condemn the recent conduct of his disciples: who, in their late proceedings, seem wholly to have disregarded the dicta of their boasted master.

master. In this quotation, Mr. Pitt is made to say that "some of the difficulties which now oppress the question (the catholic) would, if the legislature were no longer separate, but general and imperial, be removed, and the Catholics would find a *mitigation* of some of the *most goading and oppressive of their present causes of complaint.*" His present scholars scruple not directly to contradict him in this particular; and "*no farther concessions*" is the maxim of sound policy professed by the oracles of the day, the *soi disant* saviours of British Protestantism. "*No concessions now, no concessions at a future time,*" are the healing balm which the Hawkesburys and Percivals apply to the wounds and sores of Ireland. The distinction between the separate and the imperial parliament is treated as a weak conceit by these promising pupils of the Immortal Pitt.

The present pamphleteer agrees with the poet in saying,

"Let no false politics confine,
In narrow bounds your vast design,
To make mankind unite;
Nor think it a sufficient cause,
To punish men by penal laws,
For *not believing* right.

"Rome, whose blind zeal destroys mankind,
Rome's sons shall your compassion find,
Who ne'er compassion knew:
By nobler actions their's condemn,
For what has been reproached in them
Can ne'er be praised in you."

So far is he from being a catholic himself, that he asserts 'that he holds the papal system in such supreme contempt, that one of the strong incentives which urge him to this undertaking is a wish to see Popery completely overthrown, by giving to its professors such liberal toleration in all political affairs, that no cause for rancour or resentment shall operate to afford a plea for obstinate adherence to the ways of error and absurdity in religion.' If the sentiments of this advocate of catholic toleration are not very civil and obliging, the professors of that faith would probably be glad that all their opponents would carry on hostilities, and seek their annihilation, in the same way. Though no more admirers of the catholic system than Mr. Russel, we can scarcely persuade ourselves to speak so contemptuously of a religion which a More professed, to which a Chillingworth became for a time a convert, which can boast of the absolute submission of a Pascal, of the acquiescence of a Fenelon, and of the eloquent and powerful support of a Bossuet. Still we admit the soundness of the policy which is here proposed.—As the author deems a peace with France unattainable, he thinks that the measure which he recommends presses the more imperiously on our rulers. Jo.

Art. 30 *Letters addressed to the Right Hon. Lord M——, on the late Expeditions to the Spanish Main; and on the Expediency of a gradual and systematical Emancipation of Spanish America; including a Sketch of a Plan for effecting it in a Manner beneficial to Great Britain and that Country. By a Native of Spanish America.* 8vo. pp. 95. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

This

This native of Spanish America has all the feelings, prejudices, and even the accomplishments of a well-informed and intelligent Englishman. Whatever be his nation, he places in a strong light the inexpediency of the late disastrous expedition against Buenos Ayres; and at the present moment we imagine he will find little difficulty in persuading the British public, that any attempt on the part of Great Britain to subjugate South America would be chimerical and ruinous. Recent events confirm the justice of his opinion, and the truth of his reasoning. He appears however, to have been well satisfied that the British government had it in its power, by prompt and well directed measures, to sever that country from old Spain, and to prevent it from falling into the hands of our mighty enemy. If we were to act in any way, we readily admit that it should have been only with this transcendant object in view: but, though we cherish no mean idea of the pleasing and beneficial consequences which might flow from the success of such an enterprize, we feel considerable doubts respecting its late practicability. Now, indeed, the opportunity is lost; probably, for ever. Jo

Art. 31. *A Memoir concerning the Political State of Malta.* By John Joseph Dillon, Esq., Barrister at Law. 4to. pp. 28. 2s 6d. Booker. 1807.

We think with Mr. Dillon that we are by no means required to consult Russia in regard to Malta, and that the order of St. John has no right whatever to claim from us its restitution: but when he adds his opinion that the Crown of Great Britain does not hold Malta as a subject-country, but merely as its protector and ally, we have the misfortune completely to differ from the learned Gentleman. We feel ourselves obliged to dispute every one of his premises in this argument; and even though we conceded them, we do not see that they would bear him out in his conclusions. It is with great pleasure, however, that we assent to the advice which he offers to ministers, that 'we should establish our power not only in the fortresses of the island, but in the hearts of the inhabitants; and that we should by an attentive consideration of their disposition, their habits, their prejudices civil and religious, and their laws, endeavour to effect that settlement of its government, which may be calculated to conciliate their affections, and secure their allegiance.'

We consider this as excellent advice: but our opinion is of little consequence. What will be thought of it by the right honourable author of the address to the electors of Northampton, and by his great stay and support the Yorkshire member?—for, sad to say, the Maltese are all *Catholics*, and they will want a succession of popish priests. A portion of the revenues of the island must be set apart for the education of these reverend gentlemen; Malta must have its Maynooth, its catholic college; and it will require that we should act on the principles of catholic emancipation. The Maltese, Mr. Dillon says, are brave and warlike; and therefore, probably, they will expect to be admitted into our fleets and armies. All these are difficulties in the way of Mr. D 's good advice to substitute a civil for the military government to which the island is now subject; and this would involve the personages in question in inconsistency; it

would make them reverse, in one island, the system which they follow in another, that boasts of far more sacred and antient claims on their consideration. *Jo.*

Art. 32. *The Patriot King;* appropriately dedicated to his Royal Highness the Duke of Cumberland. In which the Claims of the Catholics are legally, equitably, and liberally considered, and the Talents and Virtues of the present Ministers contrasted with those of the last. By a Foe to Bigotry. 8vo. pp. 63. 3s. Chapple. 1807.

Those who not long ago displayed very considerable dexterity and activity in creating dissensions, and in rousing animosities, have for some time affected nothing so much as forbearance and conciliation; and they are not sparing in denunciations against those who retain the posture and attitude of hostility, which they were so lately obliged by self defence to assume. To union we are not less friends than its new promulgators: it is at this moment an imperious duty: but we insist that it was as much a duty in April and May as in July and August; and that its violation was not more pernicious, though more inexcusable, in the former than in the latter months. From men who, in an hour of despondency, deserted their posts, their successors might not unreasonably have expected co-operation: but did they meet with it? The very reverse was the fact; and if the opposition was the most weak ever known, it was also the most virulent. Sickly patriotism and ousted venality marshalled their respective bands, and with united forces assailed those who had been called to the deserted helm of the state. In the midst of returning sunshine, the present advocates of union conjured up the storm, and raised the hurricane which swept away our hopes and the authors of them. Yet it is these promoters of discord that now invoke harmony; it is these authors of confusion and havoc that now call for order and reparation. This shews admirable assurance in the parties; and if the invitation is accepted, it will instance on the other side a placability and magnanimity of which the examples are rare among mankind: out with whatever ill grace and inconsistency the invitation is made, and however little we respect the quarter from which it proceeds, we trust that it will to a certain extent be successful. The men who could sacrifice place and power to a sense of duty, and to the calls of honor, will know how to make their resentments bend to the demands of their country; and while the state is threatened with danger, no ill treatment will induce its best citizens to desist from being the foremost to share in its perils. While we anticipate and recommend this patriotic demeanour, however, most remote from our breasts is the wish to see confounded together, at the same boards, the authors and the victims of the late *ery;* an artifice originating in sordid interest, which could only impose on the low and ignorant, while it degraded the country by holding it up as the sport of fanaticism, and as sacrificing its dearest interests to gratify feelings of bigotry.

In the opinion of this 'foe to bigotry,' the late treatment of the catholic claims was most just, politic, and wise; and the same authority decides that in stubborn integrity, real practical ability, and

and weight of consideration, the present ministers incomparably exceed their predecessors. His hostility to bigotry appears to us to be of the gentlest sort, and we have discovered nothing in his pamphlet that would offend the blindest of her votaries. **Jo.**

Art. 33. *Two Letters on the Subject of the Catholics*, to my Brother Abraham, who lives in the Country. By Peter Plymley. 8vo. 1s. Budd.

Partly by banter, and partly by reasoning, Mr. Peter Plymley endeavours to persuade his brother Abraham, who is an orthodox country clergyman, that he is more alarmed than he ought to be at the proposition of admitting Catholics to a full participation of civil privileges; and that the account, which is so industriously propagated of their disregard of oaths, is a manifest calumny, which their very application for relief incontestibly proves. What is it but their respect for an oath, that secludes them from situations of power and trust in the state?—'When (says Peter) the name of Ireland is mentioned, the English seem to bid adieu to common feeling, common prudence, and common sense; and to act with the barbarity of tyrants and the fatuity of ideots.' This is a very strong assertion; and we lament that so many facts come in attestation of its truth. Hitherto, we have made only an *Irish Union* of our Union with Ireland; have been solicitous to keep one part of the nominally united kingdom from coalescing with the other part, by every principle of civil and religious repulsion; and have studied not the prosperity of the people, but the triumph and monopoly of a faction. How long will it be deemed wise and loyal to continue in this course!

We believe that two more letters of this sensible writer have lately been published, but we have not yet seen them. **Mo-y.**

Art. 34. *The State of the Population, the Poor, and Poor Rates*, of every separate Parish within the Bills of Mortality, in the Cities of London and Westminster, the Borough of Southwark, and County of Middlesex. Giving a clear, concise Statement of the Money raised—the Rate in the Pound—the Number of Poor relieved—the Population of each Parish—with copious and explanatory Notes in relation to the Situation of the Poor—where farmed, and contracted for—where kept in Workhouses, &c.;—with the Number of Friendly Societies—Children in Schools of Industry—and various other valuable Information. From Papers ordered to be laid before the House of Lords, April 5, 1805. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway.

Errors, it may be presumed, occur in the tables here given to the public: but they may be sufficiently exact for the purpose of affording a compressed view of the expences with which we are burdened by our Poor System, and of enabling us to obtain general results.

On returns from the 150 parishes which constitute London, within and without the walls, the following observations are made:

'All these parishes or places, except St. Andrew by the Wardrobe, St Margaret Moses, in Friday Street, St. Pancras, Cheap-

side, St. Thomas in Southwark, and Paddington, maintain all, or part of, their poor in workhouses. The number of persons so maintained during the year ending Easter 1803, was 14,756; and the expences incurred therein was 220,061l. 5s. 7d. being at the rate of 14l 18s. 3d. for each person maintained in that manner. It appears from the abstracts of the returns in 1776, that there were then 56 workhouses in these parishes or places, capable of accommodating 13,270 persons. The number of persons relieved out of workhouses was 55,145, besides 16,304 who were not parishioners. The expence incurred in relieving those not in workhouses, was 112,563l. 19s.: a large proportion of those who were not parishioners appear to have been vagrants; and, therefore, it is probable the relief afforded to this class of poor, would not exceed two shillings each, amounting to 1630l. 8s.: it will then leave the rate at 2l. 0s. 2¾d. for each person relieved.

'The resident population of the metropolis, in the year 1801, appears from the population abstract to be 864,845; so that the number relieved from the poor rates appears to be $8\frac{6}{100}$ in a hundred of the resident population.'

The returns from 208 parishes, or places, in the county of Middlesex, justify this general statement:

'One hundred and eighty-three parishes or places maintain all their poor IN workhouses; the number of persons so maintained during the year, ending Easter 1803, was 15,186, and the expence 224,048l. 2s. 1d. being at the rate of 14l. 15s. 1d for each person in that manner. It appears from the abstract of 1776, there were then 86 workhouses capable of accommodating 13,741 persons. The number of persons relieved OUT of workhouses was 47,987, besides those who were not parishioners, 32,506; the expence of the poor not in workhouses was 125,152l. 4s. 3d.: a large proportion of those not parishioners were vagrants, and, therefore, probably the relief did not exceed two shillings each, amounting to 3250l. 12s.; this sum being deducted, will leave it at the rate of 2l. 16s. 9½d. for each parishioner relieved OUT of any workhouse. The number of persons relieved IN and OUT of workhouses was 63,173, besides those who were not parishioners; and *excluding* the expence for that class of poor, the whole sum amounted to 364,034l. 0s 10d. being at the rate of 5l. 15s. 3d. for each parishioner relieved. The resident population of the county of Middlesex in the year 1801, by the population abstract, appears to have been 818,129, so that the number of parishioners relieved from the poor rates appears to have been 8 in 100 of the resident population.'

We leave these facts to the comments of our readers. **Mo-y.**

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 35. *An improved Method of treating Strictures in the Urethra.* By Thomas Whately, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 2d Edition. 8vo. 5s Boards. Johnson. 1806.

This work first appeared in the year 1804, and we at that time briefly noticed it: but we have now to announce a new and enlarged edition.

edition. The nature of the affection here treated is well known to our professional readers; and they are aware that, for its cure, two methods have been adopted; one consisting in the mechanical dilatation of the diseased part by the use of bougies, and the other in its complete destruction by the application of caustic. This latter method was brought into notice by the late John Hunter, and has been since very largely practised by Mr. Home and other surgeons of eminence. Mr. Whately also decidedly prefers the use of caustics: but, whereas the nitrate of silver (or, as it is usually called, the lunar caustic,) is the one which has been generally employed, Mr W. here endeavours to prove that the object is more conveniently attained by the use of the *kali purum* of the London pharmacopæia, or pure potash.

After some general remarks on the nature of the symptoms produced by stricture in the urethra, and on the supposed state of disease which pervades the membrane in the neighbourhood of the strictured part, Mr. Whately, in the second chapter, enters more immediately on his subject, by pointing out the superior advantages of the kali, employed as a caustic, over the nitrate of silver. 'It has,' says he, 'been my good fortune to discover a more efficacious, and, at the same time, a less painful and hazardous remedy for the disease in question.' Mr. Whately not only employs a different substance for the destruction of the stricture, but he uses it in another manner, and has formed a different opinion respecting its mode of operation. In the former method, the lunar caustic is fixed to the end of the bougie, and is in this manner passed down the urethra, and applied to the surface of the stricture: but Mr. W. never advises the application of the kali until he has it in his power to pass a fine bougie through the stricture: into the point of the bougie, a minute particle of kali is fixed, and covered with mucilage: this is then passed into the strictured part, and kept there for a short space of time, until the kali may be supposed to be dissolved, and to have acted on the diseased membrane.

When he has sufficiently detailed his own method of removing stricture, Mr. Whately criticizes the plan adopted by Mr. Home. That the latter frequently effects a cure cannot be denied: but Mr. W. thinks that this benefit is, in many cases, dearly purchased by a degree of pain, and a train of alarming symptoms, that never occur in his operations. It must indeed be confessed that, in reviewing the cases of Mr. Home, and those which are detailed in this volume, the difference is very considerably in favour of the kali: but, before we decide on the question, some circumstances require to be borne in mind. We shall not here dwell on the general topic,—the tendency which every one has to view with a favourable eye any improvement, or supposed improvement, which he has himself suggested; much less do we mean to insinuate that Mr. Whately has designedly misrepresented the success of his practice: but it is to be observed that he begins by confining the use of the kali to those cases of stricture in which a bougie can be made to pass through the diseased part, and it is indeed on the practicability of this circumstance that the very principle of his operation is founded. Now it is evident that, by this very restriction, he excludes himself from those

cases in which the use of the caustics is the most urgently indicated, which first led to their employment, and in which alone the bougie is inadmissible. A second remark which we must make is that, if, after a full experience, Mr. Whately's success be superior to that of Mr. Home, the advantage will probably be found to arise, not from any specific virtue in the substance employed, but from more nicety in the method of using it. The precautions adopted by Mr. W. in this respect are, we think, highly commendable, and may probably be employed with advantage by every one who uses caustics of any description, to so delicate an organ as the inner membrane of the urethra.—As the nature of our work would render it improper for us to enter into a more minute discussion of the subject, we shall conclude with recommending Mr. Whately's book to the careful perusal of those who are engaged in this branch of surgery. **Bos.**

Art. 36 *Observations on the Application of Lunar Caustic to Strictures in the Urethea and Œsophagus.* By M. W. Andrews, M.D. &c. 8vo. 5s. 6d Boards. Callow. 1807.

Dr. Andrews is one of the most strenuous supporters of the practice to which this treatise refers, and he appears to have had an extensive opportunity of witnessing its beneficial effects. He does not propose any improvement in the manner of applying the remedy, nor any new idea respecting its mode of operation: but, considering the question as still before the tribunal of the public, he conceives it to be a duty incumbent on him to state the result of his own experience. The work is written in a plain unaffected style; and the cases are sufficiently numerous to justify the favourable impression which the author has formed of the operation.

The author devotes a part of his volume to the consideration of the objections which have been urged against the use of the lunar caustic, particularly those that have been advanced by the late Mr Bell and Mr Whately. The former, we must acknowlege, seem to us to have been adopted by Mr. B. without a sufficient acquaintance with the practice which he condemned. Those of Mr. Whately likewise do not always appear well founded, but his treatise is so written as to impress us with a favourable opinion of his judgment and candor, and to induce us to hope that his suggestions may not be disregarded.

Dr. A. concludes with an account of three cases of stricture of the œsophagus, which he attempted to remove by the lunar caustic. In two of them, the death of the patient, as it would appear, from incidental causes prevented the completion of the cure; the third case was permanently relieved. **D.º**

Art. 37. *Discourses on the Management of Infants and the Treatment of their Diseases;* written in a plain familiar Style, to render them intelligible and useful to all Mothers. By John Herdman, M.D. &c &c 8vo. 6s. Boards. Jordan and Co. 1807.

This volume consists of two discourses, the first of which, on the management of infants, has been published for some time, and was noticed by us in our XLIVth vol. N. S. p. 106.; the second treats on the *diseases* of infants. The grand point, which the author endeavours to establish, is that the interference of art is almost always injurious,

jurious, and that to this source we must refer a great proportion of the diseases of infancy. He begins by controverting the propriety of the usual custom of giving purgatives immediately after birth, for the purpose of removing the meconium from the bowels: a practice which he very warmly condemns, on the principle that the substance itself does not possess any noxious properties, and that when it is retained for a longer space of time than is usual, the retention is always the consequence and not the cause of disease To the use of an improper kind of diet, he ascribes many of the ailments to which children are liable, particularly those of the bowels; and from this circumstance he is led to describe at some length the properties of the several kinds of milk, in order to shew that human milk differs from every other, and possesses a peculiar combination of principles, which cannot be imitated by any artificial compound.

All the diseases which attack the nose, the lungs, or the eyes, are here referred to the general cause of temperature; consisting either in the rapid transition from one extreme to the other, or in the long continued application of cold. To this source Dr. H. ascribes what has been called the snuffles, and those asthmatic complaints which so frequently prove fatal to children; and after having severely criticized the usual routine of medicine which is prescribed for them, he concludes that their cure is to be trusted entirely to the mother's milk, to fresh air, and to a proper degree of warmth.

Dr. Herdman speaks in a very decided tone, both as to his own plans of treatment, and in his strictures on other writers; indeed he lashes Dr. Underwood most unmercifully, and is not a little severe even on Cullen. Many of his observations are certainly judicious, and his general views are such as would appear to be the result of a strong understanding, not fettered by any undue respect for the authority or sentiments of others. Yet, at the same time that we give him this praise, we must avow our opinion that he has frequently carried his ideas to a most unreasonable length, and that his boldness of style occasionally degenerates into coarseness. **Bos.**

Art. 38. *The History and Treatment of the Diseases of the Teeth, the Gums, and the Alveolar Processes*, with the Operations which they respectively require. To which are added, Observations on other Diseases of the Mouth, and on the Mode of Fixing Artificial Teeth. Illustrated with Copper-plates. By Joseph Fox, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cox. 1806.

We are glad to announce the 2d part of Mr. Fox's valuable publication*. In his former treatise, he gave an account of the natural history of the teeth; and in the present, he enters into the consideration of their diseases, of which by much the most frequent is caries. Mr. Fox's detail of the origin and progress of this malady is accurate as far as it extends, but we apprehend that it is too limited. He says that it has its origin in the bony part of the crown of the tooth, and that it spreads from this part until it reaches the internal cavity on the one hand, and affects the enamel in the contrary direction. This may be the most general progress of the disease, but every practitioner

* See Rev. Vol. xliv. N.S. p. 91.

must have observed that caries often commences on the external surface of the tooth: a fact which the author himself fully admits, when he states that 'there is no one part of a tooth more particularly disposed to become diseased than another;' and he more explicitly informs us that 'the decay very often commences on the sides of the teeth which are placed in opposition to each other.' Such is indeed the usual situation in which the disease of the incisors commences, and one which appears quite inconsistent with the idea that caries always has its origin in the bony part of the crown of the tooth. Proceeding on the same principle, Mr. Fox conceives the proximate cause of caries 'to be an inflammation in the bone of the crown of the tooth, which, on account of its peculiar structure, terminates in mortification.

'The membrane which is contained within the cavity of a tooth is very vascular, and possesses a high degree of nervous sensibility: an inflammation of this membrane is liable to be occasioned by any excitement which produces irregular action; and, as the bone of the tooth is very dense, and possesses little living power, a death of some part of it may speedily follow an inflammation of the vessels of the membrane which are contained within the cavity.'

To this hypothesis we object, as not applying to the whole of the phænomena. When the decay commences between two incisors that are in contact, we do not perceive how any connection can be traced to the membrane lining the internal cavity. The part in which the disease makes its appearance, and the circumstance of both the teeth becoming affected at the same time, although not corresponding teeth, seem to shew that, in this instance, the surface is the primary seat of the disease.

The author considers at some length the remote causes of caries: but these it appears difficult to ascertain; it sometimes depends on an original defect in the structure of the teeth, sometimes on a peculiar state of the constitution, and it is supposed to be frequently produced by taking the food at too high a temperature: but Mr. Fox does not suppose that the nature of the food can affect the teeth.—Another cause of decay is a diseased state of the gums, and the accumulation of tartar about the teeth. Although no method is discovered by which caries can be cured, yet its progress may be suspended, either by filing off the carious part, if it be on the surface, or, if a cavity be formed, by filling it with a metallic preparation.

Mr. Fox next attends to the remaining diseases of the teeth, which, from their similarity to the affections that take place in other bones, he denominates *exos osis*, *spina ventosa*, and *necrosis*; and he then treats of the diseases of the gums, and the means by which they are to be prevented or removed: subjoining an accurate analysis of the tartar, which was furnished by Mr Pepys, whence it appears to consist of the phosphate of lime, combined with about one fourth of animal matter. After some remarks on the effects of mercury, which, when administered to an undue extent, seems to cause an absorption of the alveolar processes, he enters on a description of the method of performing operations on the teeth. The observations on extraction seem particularly judicious; and the author brings forwards an improvement which he has made in the form of the instrument.—The plates accompanying this volume are, like those in the former part,

part, well designed and neatly executed, and form a vuluable appendage to the text. Bos.

Art. 39. *An Account of a newly-discovered Membrane in the Human Eye.* To which are added, some Objections to the Common Operation for Fistula Lachrymalis, and the Suggestion of a New Mode of Treating that Disease. By S. Sawrey, Surgeon. 4to. 2s. 6d. Boosey. 1807.

The discovery which Mr. Sawrey proclaims is that of a thin transparent membrane which lines the cornea, which may be traced to the union of the cornea and the iris, and which is more conspicuous in the horse and the hare than in the ox and the human subject. Mr. S exhibited it to several medical gentlemen of eminence in the metropolis, who acknowleged its existence, and confessed that they were previously unacquainted with it. The use of the membrane is supposed to be similar to that of other membranes lining cavities, particularly such as are destined for the reception of a fluid. The cornea, when immersed in water, permits it to exude, and becomes itself opake, whereas the newly discovered membrane seems to be impervious to fluid.

On the subject of *fistula lachrymalis*, the author begins by tracing the operations that have, from time to time, been proposed for its cure. He deems it probable that they have each occasionally proved successful, and that this fact can only be explained on the supposition that in all of them the sac has been obliterated. This circumstance, by rendering the tears less necessary, will diminish their secretion, according to a general principle in the animal œconomy, by which secreted fluids are produced according to the demand for them. In the incipient state of the complaint, he recommends an attempt at removing the obstruction from the lower orifice, and not, as is generally the case, from the *puncta lachrymalia*. Dº

Art. 40. *An Address to the Professors of Physic and Surgery, in the Cities of London and Westminster*, proposing the Institution of a Society for Investigating the Cause, Symptoms, and Cure, of the Hydrophobia. 8vo. 6d. Creighton. 1807.

The object of this little work is sufficiently expressed in the title. The author remarks that we are still ignorant on most points that respect the nature and treatment of this disease; and he thinks that more progress would be made in the investigation by a society of professional men, formed for the express purpose, than can be done by the insulated efforts of individuals. Certainly the subject and the proposition are worthy of attention. Dº

Art. 41. *A History of the Analysis of the Mineral Waters situated at Butterby, near Durham.* By W. R. Clanny, M. D. &c. 12mo. pp. 60. 2s. sewed. Lane and Co. 1807.

We learn from this pamphlet that, near Durham, are two mineral springs, one of which contains different saline substances, and the other, in addition to these, the sulphurated hydrogen. The experiments which were performed with the view of ascertaining the exact composition of these waters do not, however, exhibit that neatness and accuracy, which the improvements of modern chemistry require. We may indeed conclude that the nature of their ingredients is such as is pointed out by the author, but nothing in his treatise can enable

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us to determine how far he is correct in the proportions which he has assigned for them. He informs us that a wine gallon of the sulphureous water contains 78 grains of saline matter, principally consisting of the muriate of soda, and 22 cubic inches of gaseous contents, of which about one half is sulphurated hydrogen.

Dr. Clanny expatiates on the beauty and commodiousness of Durham and its environs, and strongly recommends it as an advantageous watering place: but he is careful to inculcate on his readers that the waters, although possessed of many virtues, ought never to be taken without the invalid having previously obtained medical advice. **Bos.**

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 42. *The Destiny of the German Empire*, and the general Prospects of Europe. In two Parts. By J. Bicheno, M. A. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson, &c.

'I by no means (says Mr. Bicheno) approve of those interpretations which rest more on fancy than argument.' How then, it is natural to ask, can he approve of his own? for fancy was never less supported by argument than in the interpretations which are contained in the work before us. We peruse with indignation, not inferior to that which is expressed by this writer, the heart-rending records of persecution; and we think with him that those governments, which have distinguished themselves in this bloody work, merit the severest chastisement: but we cannot for this reason admit that the German Emperors, and the Kings of France and Sardinia, were meant by the dragon in the Apocalypse, and that their overthrow was intended by any of the symbols in this mysterious book. Data are altogether wanting for the proof.—A writer may be very serious, but he may be also very presumptuous. For centuries, it has been the practice to discover in the Apocalyptic visions, references to existing events; and it is matter of surprize that the want of success in these speculations has not by this time convinced interpreters of the folly of the attempt. Scarcely any two commentators agree in the same illustration; which indeed is not astonishing, since they have nothing except vague conjecture to guide them. Mr. B. pronounces the Romano-Germanic Empire to be '*dragonic*'; and he supposes that, by the Angels laying hold of the Dragon and imprisoning him, we are to understand a signal victory obtained over the imperial power; of course that the prophecy is fulfilled in the recent misfortunes of the house of Austria, &c. 8

While, however, this writer expatiates on the calamities of Europe, and endeavours to alarm us on account of our share in them, he diminishes our hopes respecting the Millenium: which he reduces from 360,000 years according to the large calculation of some persons or from a thousand years according to the estimate of others, to the short period of *nineteen years and a quarter*; contending that, in reckoning the Millenary period, 'years *may* stand for weeks.' Thus in one part of the Apocalyptic vision a day must denote *a year*, and in another part a year must signify a *week*, to answer the views of the interpreter! What ridiculous trifling! Yet we must not smile because the author is grave:—but we will frown at such insufferable nonsense, if our brows never recover from their wrinkles. **Moy.**

Art.

Art. 43. *My Pocket Book;* or Hints for "a Ryghte Merrie and Conceitede" Tour, in 4to; to be called "The Stranger in Ireland," in 1805. By a Knight Errant. 12mo. pp. 212. 4s. 6d. Boards Vernor and Co. 1807.

The author of "the Stranger in Ireland" is here sent on his travels against his will, and made to figure in a ludicrous shape. This Pocket Book is dedicated to the *paper makers*, who are interested in the fashionable mode of *book making*; and it is introduced by a *prefatory postscript*, as a proper preface to an *Irish* tour. The writer displays considerable humour; and if *the Tourist* will take the hints offered to him, he may derive some benefit from the laugh which is rather mercilessly raised at his expence. **Mo-y.**

Art. 44. *Illustration of the Tumuli, or ancient Barrows;* exhibiting the Principles which determined the Magnitude and Position of each, and their systematic Connection with other Vestiges of equal antiquity. By Thomas Stackhouse. 8vo. 4s. Arch.

It is the opinion of this writer that those mounds of earth called Barrows, which may be seen in various parts of the kingdom, were not merely constructed for purposes of interment, but that they had a more extensive and important designation, viz. to communicate intelligence: exhibiting, as Mr. S. observes, 'when taken collectively, the most complete system of vigilatory and communicating points that perhaps ever did or ever will exist.' We regard this notion, however, as altogether visionary; and they who are convinced by Mr. S.'s book must be among the most *persuadable* of John Bull's credulous family. **Do**

Art. 45. *Remarks on Mr. Whitbread's Plan for the Education of the Poor;* with Observations on Sunday Schools, and on the State of the apprenticed Poor. By James Parkinson, Hoxton. 8vo. 1s. Symonds.

Though Mr. Whitbread's bill has not been adopted by the legislature, we are given to understand that the important subject which it embraces will not be abandoned; and writers, by judicious hints and observations, may keep the discussion alive, and contribute to the formation of a more complete code of poor laws than at present exists. Mr. Parkinson approves Mr. Whitbread's general views and principles, but proposes objections to that part of his plan which respects the instruction of the poor; and he gives the preference to the present Sunday-school system over that of parochial schools designed by Mr. W., being of opinion that the former less interfere with the industry of the poor than the latter, and do not diminish their earnings.

Mr P. farther suggests that poor children apprenticed by the parish are not sufficiently protected by the legislature. He has humanely endeavoured to remedy this evil, as far as his influence has extended, and has proposed that children should be apprenticed in their own parish whenever proper masters can be obtained; that the address of the Vestry Clerk should be given to them, in order that they may apply to him in case of ill treatment; that children apprenticed out of the parish should be visited by a committee, or the overseers, twice every year; and that no child should be apprenticed to cotton-mills, unless a manufactory be attached to them; or to any other em-

ploy by which it does not appear to be probable that such child may be rendered able to gain a livelihood when his term of apprenticeship is expired. This hint will speak for itself. Moy.

FAST-SERMONS.

Art. 46. Preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, Feb. 25, 1807, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By John Lord Bishop of Exeter. 4to. 1s. Becket.

This R. R. preacher fears, and perhaps with reason, that 'the observance of these periodical acts of devotional exercises have not been productive of the advantage which might have accrued from them.' As far as the inculcation of the importance of religion to the social prosperity of man is concerned, this sermon may be of use: but the sentiment is too hackneyed on these occasions to invite by any charm of novelty. In order to prove how many are precluded from the worship of their Maker, by the want of places of assemblage for Divine Service, the Bishop points out the disproportion between the population and the provision made for divine service, in six of the principal parishes of the western part of the metropolis. If complaints of an insufficiency of chapels are made in these parishes, why is not the number or their size increased? Do

Art. 47. Preached Feb. 25, 1807, first before his Majesty's Coldstream Regiment of Guards, and afterwards at Brompton Lodge, before their Royal Highnesses the Duchess, Princess, and Prince William Frederick Duke of Gloucester, and the Duchess's Household. By the Rev. William W. Dakins, LL.B. F.S.A. &c. 4to. 1s. Becket.

Both the text and the doctrine of this discourse are similar to those of the Abbey-sermon. The preacher tells his audience that it was the constant language of the Almighty to the antient Jews, 'You may expect success from perseverance in the ways of virtue and religion, and by forsaking these courses, you may depend on finding yourselves in a quite contrary state of affairs.' We are then exhorted to take warning from the dealings of Providence with the Israelites. How often has this warning been repeated, and when will it profit us? Do

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 48. Preached before the University of Oxford, Nov. 24, 1805, in which is proposed a new Interpretation of the lxxxviith Psalm. By John Eveleigh, D.D., Provost of Oriel College, and Prebendary of Rochester. 8vo. 1s. White. 1806.

Dr. Eveleigh is intitled to some commendation for endeavouring to improve the version of the 87th Psalm; which, both in the Psalter and our common Bible, is perplexed and unsatisfactory: but we much doubt whether he has been completely successful. His rendering of the pronoun זֶה by *Quisque horum*, and indeed his translation of the fourth verse, all critics (we think) must approve: but it is probable that they will not so readily subscribe to his interpretation of the last, which is entirely new, differing as much from

the version of the LXX as from that of our bibles. He would render וְשָׂרִים *But princes;* and חֲלָלִים *slain;* and the whole verse, "But princes are slain men: all my springs are in thee." The LXX were evidently embarrassed by this passage, but their project of amendment was not so bold as that of Dr. E. Instead of introducing *slain princes*, which ill suit ψαλμὸς ᾠδῆς, they conclude this exhilirating psalm with an exhilirating sentiment, "The habitation of all those who rejoice is in thee." Moy.

Art. 49 *Preached at the Temple, May* 31, *and at Berkley Chapel, Berkley Square, June* 28, on the Conduct to be observed by the Established Church towards Catholics and other Dissenters. By the Rev. Sydney Smith, A M. Late Fellow of New College, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Carpenter.

It is impossible not to applaud, in the highest terms, the sound and liberal principles which pervade every part of this discourse; especially at a time 'when anger and error appear to be epidemical.' To a laudable zeal for the Established Church, Mr. Smith unites the true spirit of Christian Liberty. 'As I love to worship God, (says he), according to my own conceptions of real religion, I love that every man should do the same; as I wish that all the honors and advantages of the realm were laid fairly open to my competition, I most ardently wish (if the safety of the state will admit of it) that they could be laid open to the competition of every other man, let his faith be what it may.' He does not deny that the safety of the state, under certain circumstances, *may* require restrictions adverse to civil freedom: but he contends that the most convincing proofs of the existence of such necessity should be produced before disqualifying statutes on account of religion are enacted; and that these restrictions, being considered as temporary, should be removed at the first favourable opportunity.

Not only does Mr. Smith pronounce that the very principle of Test Laws is an inroad on the liberties of mankind, but he regards it as 'a want of candour in the Establishment, to presume that time has produced no changes for the better in the spirit of any other religion' We call the present an *enlightened* age, which indeed it is, compared with the sixteenth century; and though the formulæ of different sects and churches remain nearly the same as at that day, the spirit which now pervades the Christian world is of another complexion. Persecution now dares not shew itself, except under its milder features of negations and disabilities; and it is doubted by the wisest men whether these are measures of sound policy. Adverting to some tenets of the Catholic Church, Mr. Smith is disposed to regard them as in a great measure *a dead letter*. 'We are bound in justice (he observes) to consider not what is *said* by other sects, but what is DONE; not to seize on lifeless and antiquated doctrines, which they have been too proud, too timid, or too careless to expunge; but to mark their religion, both where it is in subjection, and where it is in power, and to gather its real character from its genuine spirit.'

This eloquent preacher smiles at the sickly and unmanly fears which some persons cherish, respecting the danger of the church, and

and pronounces it as his opinion that 'it is strong enough to suffer all men to be free.' He asks whether it has been weakened by the extension of toleration which has taken place within the present reign; and he cautions the advocates of penal laws against the impression which the inflammatory names of sects are apt to excite. While he protests against the tenets of the Catholics, he reminds us 'that many of the greatest and best of men that ever lived have been of that communion; and that it is impossible to cry down its followers as men unworthy to be trusted by the state and unfit for all the offices of life.'

Though this sermon is rather short, it is full of good sense, breathes a truly Christian spirit, disclaims advantages for the establishment which are incompatible with civil and religious freedom, and recommends the allaying of little jealousies and the softening of mortifying distinctions. In fine, it merits a general perusal, and we trust that the extracts which we have made from it will promote its sale. **Mo.y.**

Art 50. *Extract of a Sermon on the Education of the Poor, under an improved System.* Preached at St. Mary's Lambeth, 28th June, 1807, for the Benefit of the Boys' Charity School at Lambeth. By the Rev. Dr. Andrew Bell, A.M. F.A.S. F.R.S.E. &c. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

It is surprising that senators and statesmen should hesitate one moment in admitting the importance of education to social virtue, and that the striking contrast between one part of the United Kingdom and another does not carry irresistible conviction on this subject to every mind. Most of the vices of the Poor arise from the neglect of the Poor; and were their interest more consulted, more virtue and less unhappiness would prevail in the social state. The multitude of uneducated poor is very great, as Mr Colquhoun has shewn, in his Treatise on Indigence *; and if this mass be furnished with no good principles, can we wonder that they have no good conduct, or that their morals should be profligate? Dr. Bell evinces commendable solicitude to remove this evil,—we may add, *this opprobrium of social life*. His plan is peculiarly suited to give to the poor, in an expeditious way, that education which is a necessary basis for religious instruction, or indeed for enabling them to attend the public places of worship with advantage. By his speedy method, the labour of the poor is but little interrupted; and by the emulation which it excites, it appears rather an amusement than a task. When so many of our poor are in a state of Pagan ignorance, they should (as Dr. Bell observes) be the first objects of our missonary zeal; and we trust that his judicious exhortations will have their effect in recommending his plan.—We hear with pleasure that it is successfully adopted in a national seminary deserving of much praise, *the Royal Military Asylum* at Chelsea. **Do**

Art. 51. Preached at Leicester, June 8th, 1806, at the Visitation of the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of Lincoln, by the Honourable and Rev. H. Ryder, A.M. Rector of Lutterworth. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Payne.

'* Amounting to 1,750,000 of the population of Great Britain and Ireland.'

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The immediate subject of this discourse is taken from a passage in the writings of St. Paul, which does honour to his memory, and will ever continue to convey useful admonitions to all christians, both ministers and people: 1st. Ep. Corinth. ix. 27. "*I keep under my body, and bring it into subjection: lest that by any means when I have preached to others, I, myself, should be a castaway.*"

'What,' says this Divine, 'is the practical or doctrinal inference, which it concerns us to draw from this passage of St. Paul? Is it merely to be considered as a declaration, that peculiar moderation in worldly pleasures becomes the minister of a pure and spiritual religion? or, are we to contend, in pursuance of the train of argument which pervades the chapter, that moderation in exacting our temporal rights is a matter of high expedience, if not of strict duty, lest we offend our weak brethren, and thus hinder the due influence of our doctrine? Either of these would be a legitimate deduction from my text, and would afford topics for useful reflection and admonition. But as all things should be done unto edifying and in order, such subjects may, perhaps, best be left to the discretion, the experienced judgment, and to the authoritative introduction of those who bear rule in the church, and to whom we look for reproof and instruction in righteousness. There is an inference of a different kind to be drawn from the text, which has not been overlooked by the ancient commentators. "If St. Paul," say they, "who had preached and laboured so much, still feared lest he should be a castaway, what cause have christians in general to dread, lest this should be their lot" Considered in this point of view, this passage becomes of peculiar importance. If the inference be fairly drawn, is it not in direct opposition to that doctrine of indefectible grace which has been set up as the standard of orthodoxy, and as the test of saving faith? May it not well be made the ground-work of a contrary opinion: That, as far as human knowledge is concerned, there is no absolute certainty of the perseverance of any individual: That doubt of fulfilling the duties necessary to salvation is the proper feeling of a being still subject to inward frailty and outward temptation: That this apprehension of final failure will differ infinitely in degree according to our progress in holiness, and vary according as our tempers are sanguine or desponding: but that no common christian can have just reason wholly to lay aside that fear, which, as it is the beginning, so is it, under divine grace, the preservative of human virtue and wisdom.'

In this manner the preacher argues, and he appears to have truth and experience engaged on his side. **Hi.**

Art. 52. *Importance of Domestic Discipline, and Youth admonished of the Evils of bad Company.* Two Sermons preached at Newport, Isle of Wight, Dec. 28, 1806, and Jan. 4, 1807. By Daniel Tyerman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Baynes, &c.

Though these discourses may be deemed *local* in their particular application, yet they may be regarded as of general utility. 'The author has witnessed with painful emotion, the increasing profligacy of the town where Divine Providence has called him to labour. To behold a place, once famed for morality and simplicity, given up to their opposite vices to a considerable extent, must be a distressing sight to a benevolent mind.—Persuaded that much of the iniquity of the

the rising generation takes its rise in the neglect of domestic discipline, he resolved to attempt to correct the evil in its origin, and therefore addressed the first sermon to parents and heads of families; and having seen, in several mournful instances, the destructive influence which bad company had over youth, the second sermon was delivered with a hope of inducing some of them at least, to shun the horrid evil.' So sensible are we to the consequence of its design, that we cannot but recommend this pamphlet, with hearty wishes that it may have, in any degree, that happy influence and efficacy with a view to which it is published.—The Isle of Wight, we regret to hear, has lost much of its former character for the moral virtues, from the introduction, in late years, of troops, barracks, and military *dépôts*. Hi.

Art. 53. Preached in the Parish Church of Grantham, Lincolnshire, 31st May, 1804, at the Visitation of the Rev. the Archdeacon. By the Rev. T. G. Thompson, A. M. Rector of Bolton. 4to. 1s. Hatchard. 1806.

The acquirement of literary or theological fame is resolutely rejected by Mr. T.; who is 'willing even to lose reputation as a writer, so that he may only do good as a minister of Christ.' - His style and manner, indeed, display warm benevolence, and an earnest wish to promote the best interests of mankind: but while he is anxious not to *be called presumptuous or fanatical*, or to have *his principles stigmatized with the name of party*, how can he be entirely sheltered from such a charge, when he not only declares his concurrence with those who embrace the high Calvinistical creed, but intimates his confident persuasion that they, and they only, hold the truth of the Gospel? This, in our view, bears not the stamp of Christian charity. However we might, therefore, in other respects, honour his zeal, we cannot regard it as duly modulated and corrected by the spirit of candor. Do

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CORRESPONDENCE.

The letter signed *Unitarian* would more properly have been addressed to Mr. S. than to us. If his conduct be at variance with his principles, we are not responsible. By the zealous Unitarian, he may be condemned: but, in discussing the merits of the system, his statements and arguments must be viewed independently of the man. Mo-y.

Let our friend P. C. rather assume the words *Nil Desperandum* for the motto on his banner, than write in the mournful style which he has adopted. Let him recollect and be roused by the advice of the poet,

"*Tu ne cede malis, sed contrà audentior ito.*"

We mean very speedily to attend to the wishes expressed by X. Y.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. LIII. of the Monthly Review is published with this Number, and contains accounts of a variety of interesting and important FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS; with the General Title, Table of Contents, and Index, for the Volume.

Errors, pp. 16, 31, 42, 52, 79, 80, 86, 88, 91, 106, 109.